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THEORETICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR

The Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine
The State Institution
"Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University"

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The Manual for Part-Time Students of Philology Departments of Higher Educational Institutions

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The manual in Theoretical English Grammar consists of three chapters: I. Lecture material. II. Practical classes. III. Individual task. The aim of the course is developing linguistic thinking in students, scientific understanding of grammar and lexical categories in the English language. A special attention is paid to the problematic issues of grammar theory at the modern stage of linguistics development, the issues of systemic nature of the language, dialect unities of form and content of all grammar phenomena, functional and semantic connections between units of different levels. The issues are discussed in the comparison with the Ukrainian Language.

The manual is composed for the part-time students of philology departments of higher educational institutions.

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

This manual is designed for the part-time students of philology departments of higher educational institutions, studying in senior courses.

Its purpose is therefore to lead the students to a scientific understanding of new assumptions and views of language as system, keeping abreast of the latest findings set forth in the progressive development of grammatical theory by native and foreign scholars in recent times.

The following course of theoretical grammar serves to describe the grammatical structure of the English language as a system where all parts are interconnected.

Any linguistic description may have a practical or theoretical purpose. A practical description is aimed at providing the student with a manual of practical mastery of the corresponding part of language (within the limits determined by various factors of educational destination and scientific possibilities). Since the practice of lingual intercourse, however, can only be realised by employing language as a unity of all its constituent parts, practical linguistic manuals more often than not comprise the three types of description presented in a complex. As for theoretical linguistic descriptions, they pursue analytical aims and therefore present the studied parts of language in relative isolation, so as to gain insights into their inner structure and expose the intrinsic mechanisms of their functioning. Hence, the aim of theoretical grammar of a language is to present a theoretical description of its grammatical system, i.e. to scientifically analyse and define its grammatical categories and study the mechanisms of grammatical formation of utterances out of words in the process of speech making.

Unlike school grammar, theoretical grammar does not always produce a ready-made decision. In language there are a number of phenomena interpreted differently by different linguists. To a great extent, these differences are due to the fact that there exist various directions in linguistics, each having its own method of analysis and, therefore, its own approach to the matter. But sometimes these differences arise because some facts of language are difficult to analyze, and in this case the only thing to offer is a possible way to solve the problem, instead of giving a final solution. It is due to this circumstance that there are different theories of the same language phenomenon, which is not the case with practical grammar.

The manual consists of three parts. Part I introduces the Lecture material. Every lecture in Part 1 starts with the issues to be discussed; it includes sets of questions which will enable the student to test his knowledge. Part II includes the topics for discussion at the seminars, suggests the lists of recommended literature and a number of practical assignments that will help students to solidify their knowledge. Part III includes the topics for individual reports.

Publishing this manual, the author hopes that it will help students to master their profession deeper and better.

PART I. LECTURE MATERIAL

Module 1
Topic 1. The Scope of Theoretical Grammar.
Basic Linguistic Notions.

Questions for Discussion:
1. Language as a semiotic system: its functions, elements and structure.
2. Lingual elements (units) as signs, their levels, structural and functional features.
3. Language and Speech.
4. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations between language units.
5. Interrelation of Theoretical Grammar with other branches of linguistics.

1. Language as a semiotic system: its functions, elements and structure.
Language is a multifaceted, complex phenomenon which can be studied and described from various points of view: as a psychological or cognitive phenomenon, as a social phenomenon, from the point of view of its historic changes, etc. But first and foremost language is treated as a *semiotic system* (system of signs).

A system is a structured set of elements united by a common function. **Language** is a *system of specific interconnected and interdependent lingual signs united by their common function of forming, storing and exchanging ideas in the process of human intercourse*.

As a system, language is subdivided into three basic subsystems, each of which is a system in its own turn. They are

the **phonological**, **lexical** and **grammatical** systems. The phonological system includes the material units of which language is made up: sounds, phonemes, different intonation models, and accent models. The phonological system of language is studied by a separate branch of linguistics called phonology. The lexical system includes all the nominative (naming) means of language – words and stable word-combinations. The lexical system is studied by lexicology. The grammatical system includes the rules and regularities of using lingual units in the construction of utterances in the process of human communication. The grammatical system is described by grammar as a branch of linguistics.

Each sub-system distinguishes not only its own set of elements, but its own structural organization. For example, within the grammatical system we single out parts of speech and sentence patterns. The parts of speech are further subdivided into nouns, verbs, adjective, adverbs, functional parts of speech; this subdivision of grammar is known as morphology. Sentences are further subdivided into simple and composite: composite sentences are subdivided into complex and compound, etc.; this subdivision of grammar is known as syntax.

The foundations of systemic language description were formulated at the turn of the 20th century in the works of many linguists, among them the Russian linguists I. A. Baudoin de Courtenay, A. A. Potebnya and others. The originator of the systemic approach in linguistics is considered to be a Swiss scholar Ferdinand de Saussure. He was the first to divide the phenomenon of language in general (in French: 'language') into two sides: an 'executive' side ('parole'), concerned with the production, transmission, and reception of speech, and an underlying language system ('langue'). This is one of the basic postulates of modern systemic linguistics: language in general

comprises two aspects: the system of special lingual units and the use of these units. In other words, language in the narrow sense of the term is a system of means of expression, while speech is the manifestation of the system of language in the process of intercourse. The system of language comprises the body of lingual units and the rules of their use, while speech includes the act of producing utterances and the result of it (the utterances themselves, or the text).

Other terms are used in linguistics by different authors to denote the two basic aspects of language (which, however, do not always coincide with the 'language – speech' dichotomy): 'language competence' and 'language performance' (N. Chomsky) [17], 'linguistic schema' – 'linguistic usage', 'linguistic system' – 'linguistic process' ('text') (L. Hjelmslev), 'code' – 'message' (R. Jacobson), etc. Still, the terms 'language' and 'speech' are the most widely used.

Ferdinand de Saussure was also among the first scholars who defined lingual units as specific signs – bilateral (two-sided) units that have both form and meaning. Ferdinand de Saussure spoke about an indissoluble link between a phonetic 'signifier' (French: 'signifiant'), and a 'signified' ('signifie'). In the system of language, a lingual sign has only a potential meaning; in speech, in the process of communication, this potential meaning is "actualized", connected with a particular referent. That is why a lingual sign is graphically presented in the form of a triangle, including the material form, the meaning and the referent. For example, the word 'elephant' is a sign, consisting of a signifier, or form – the sequence of phonemes (or, in written presentation, of letters), and a signified, or meaning – the image of the animal in our mind; the referent is the 'real' animal in the outside world, which may or may not be physically present.

2. Lingual elements (units) as signs, their levels, structural and functional features.

The units of language are of two types: **segmental** and **supra-segmental**. Segmental lingual units consist of phonemes, which are the smallest material segments of the language; segmental units form different strings of phonemes (morphemes, words, sentences, etc.). Supra-segmental lingual units do not exist by themselves, their forms are realized together with the forms of segmental units; nevertheless, they render meanings of various kinds, including grammatical meanings; they are: intonation contours, accents, pauses, patterns of word-order, etc. Cf., the change of word-order and intonation pattern in the following examples: *He is at home* (statement). – *Is he at home?* (question). Supra-segmental lingual units form the secondary line of speech, accompanying its primary phonemic line.

Segmental lingual units form a hierarchy of levels. The term 'hierarchy' denotes a structure in which the units of any higher level are formed by the units of the lower level; the units of each level are characterized by their own specific functional features and cannot be seen as a mechanical composition of the lower level units.

The 1st level is formed by phonemes (it is called **phonemic**), the smallest material lingual elements, or segments. They have form, but they have no meaning. Phonemes differentiate the meanings of morphemes and words. *E.g.: man – men.*

The 2nd level is located above the phonemic one is **morphemic**. It is composed of morphemes, the smallest meaningful elements built up by phonemes. The shortest morpheme can consist of one phoneme, *e.g.: step-s*; -s renders the meaning of the 3rd person singular form of the verb, or, the plural form of the noun. The meaning of the morpheme is abstract and significative: it does not name the referent, but only signifies it.

The 3rd level in the segmental lingual hierarchy is the **lexemic** level or the level of words, or lexemes, nominative lingual units, which express direct, nominative meanings: they name, or nominate various referents. The words consist of morphemes, and the shortest word can include only one morpheme, *e.g.: cat*. The difference is in the quality of the meaning.

The 4th level is the **phrasemic** or the level of word-combinations, or phrasemes, the combinations of two or more notional words, which represent complex nominations of various referents (things, actions, qualities, and even situations) in a sentence, *e.g.: a beautiful girl, their sudden departure.* In a more advanced treatment, phrases along with separate words can be seen as the constituents of sentences, notional parts of the sentence, which make the fourth language level and can be called "denotemes".

The 5th level is the **proposemic** or the level of sentences, or proposemes, lingual units which name certain situations, or events, and at the same time express predication, i.e. they show the relations of the event named to reality - whether the event is real or unreal, desirable or obligatory, stated as a fact or asked about, affirmed or negated, etc., *e.g.: Their departure was sudden* (a real event, which took place in the past, stated as a fact, etc.). Thus, the sentence is often defined as a predicative lingual unit. The minimal sentence can consist of just one word, *e.g.: Fire!*

The 6th level is formed by sentences in a text or in actual speech. For the sake of unified terminology, this level can be called **"supra-proposemic"**. Textual units are traditionally called supra-phrasal unities; we will call such supra-sentential constructions, which are produced in speech, dictemes (from Latin 'dicto' – 'I speak'). Dictemes are characterized by a number of features, the main one of which is the unity of topic. As with all

lingual units, dictemes are reducible to one unit of the lower level; e.g., the text of an advertisement slogan can consist of just one sentence: Just do it!; or, a paragraph in a written text can be formed by a single independent sentence, being topically significant.

Not all lingual units are meaningful and, thus, they can not be defined as signs: phonemes and syllables (which are also distinguished as an optional lingual level by some linguists) participate in the expression of the meaning of the units of upper levels; they are called "cortemes" (from Lat. cortex: 'bark, crust, shell') as opposed to the majority of meaningful lingual units, called "signemes".

The systemic nature of grammar is probably more evident than that of any other sphere of language, since grammar is responsible for the very organisation of the informative content of utterances [2, p. 9-11]. Due to this fact, even the earliest grammatical treatises, within the cognitive limits of their times, disclosed some systemic features of the described material. But the scientifically sustained and consistent principles of systemic approach to language and its grammar were essentially developed in the linguistics of the twentieth century, namely, after the publication of the works by the Russian scholar Beaudoin de Courtenay and the Swiss scholar Ferdinand de Saussure. These two great men demonstrated the difference between lingual synchrony (coexistence of lingual elements) and diachrony (different time-periods in the development of lingual elements, as well as language as a whole) and defined language as a synchronic system of meaningful elements at any stage of its historical evolution.

On the basis of discriminating synchrony and diachrony, the difference between language proper and speech proper can be strictly defined, which is of crucial importance for the identification of the object of linguistic science.

3. Language and Speech.

Language in the narrow sense is a system of means of expression, while speech should be understood as the manifestation of the system of language in the process of intercourse.

The system of language, includes, on the one hand, the body of material units – sounds, morphemes, words, word-groups; on the other hand, the regularities of "rules" of the use of these units. Speech comprises both the act of producing utterances, and the utterances themselves, i.e. the text. Language and speech are inseparable, they form together an organic unity. Language and speech are inseparable, they form together an organic unity. As for grammar (the grammatical system), being an integral part of the lingual macrosystem it dynamically connects language with speech, because it categorially determines the lingual process of utterance production.

Thus, we have the broad philosophical concept of language which is analysed by linguistics into two different aspects – *the system of signs* (language proper) and *the use of signs* (speech proper). The generalising term "language" is also preserved in linguistics, showing the unity of these two aspects [2, p. 16].

The sign (meaningful unit) in the system of language has only a potential meaning. In speech, the potential meaning of the lingual sign is "actualised", i.e. made situationally significant as part of the grammatically organised text.

A lingual unit has been described above as a sign – a bilateral unit, which has its form and its meaning. Thus, two language planes can be distinguished – **the plane of content** and the **plane of expression**: the plane of content comprises all the meaningful, semantic elements contained in the language, while the plane of expression comprises all the material, formal units of

the language. Each lingual unit, including grammatical units, is a unity of meaning and form, of content and the means of its expression. But the correspondence between the two planes is not one-to-one; the relations between the units of content and the units of expression are more complex. In cases of polysemy and homonymy two or more units of the plane of content correspond to one unit of the plane of expression, for example, the lexical homonyms: seal, hand, etc. In cases of synonymy, just the other way round, two or more units of the plane of expression correspond to one unit of the plane of content, for example, the lexical synonyms: pretty, nice, beautiful, etc. The relations of homonymy and synonymy can be distinguished in the grammatical system too. For example, homonymy in grammar: the grammatical suffix -(e)s denotes the 3rd person singular of the verb, the genitive case of the noun, or the plural of the noun, as in breaks, bird's, birds; synonymy in grammar: future action can be expressed with the help of the future indefinite, the present indefinite, or the present continuous form of the verb, *as in We'll fly tomorrow; We fly tomorrow; We are flying tomorrow*.

Thus, language and speech are two correlative planes of one dialectical unity. It goes from this that there is nothing in language, which is not actualized in speech and there is nothing in speech, which does not exist potentially in language.

4. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations between language units.

Crucial for the systemic description of language are the two fundamental types of relations between lingual units: **syntagmatic** and **paradigmatic.**

Syntagmatic relations are immediate linear relations where lingual units form various lingual strings, sequences, or constructions; in other words, lingual units co-occur in the same

actual sequences. *E.g.: He started laughing.* In this sentence we can point out syntagmatic, or linear relations between the sounds [h+i:] = [hi:]; [s+t+a:+t+i+d] = [sta:tid]; etc.; the morphemes are also connected syntagmatically within words: start+ed = started; laugh+ing = laughing; the combinations of words form syntagmas within phrases and sentences: He + started; started + laughing. Besides, the sentence can be connected with other sentences by syntagmatic relations in the process of communication, in speech, *e.g.: He started laughing. Everybody thought it was rather odd.*

The term "syntagmatic relations" is derived from the word "*syntagma*", i.e. a linear combination of units of the same level.

There are four main types of notional syntagmas: *predicative* (the combination of a subject and a predicate), *objective* (the combination of a verb and its object), *attributive* (the combination of a noun and its attribute), *adverbial* (the combination of a modified notional word, such as a verb, adjective, or adverb, with its adverbial modifier).

Since these relations can be observed in actual utterances, they are also defined by the Latin term "in praesentia" ("in the presence", present in the same sequence).

In real speech in one and the same utterance different types of syntagmatic relations are realized, depending on the speaker's intention and communicative purpose.

The other type of relations, opposed to syntagmatic, are called *paradigmatic*. The term is derived from the word "paradigm" and denotes the relations between elements in paradigms in the system of language. Ferdinand de Saussure called these relations 'associative relations', implying the way different linguistic units are arranged and associated with each other in human minds. Classical grammatical paradigms are those making up grammatical categories of words, or, morphological categories, *e.g.,* the category of number or case of the noun: in

Ukrainian – стіл – стола – столу – столом – на столі; in English – toy – toys; tooth – teeth; children – children's, etc.

Paradigm, in most general terms, is a system of variants of the same unit, which is called 'the invariant'; paradigmatic relations are the relations between the variants of the lingual unit within a paradigm. Not only words, but all lingual units are organized in the system of language paradigmatically according to their own categories; for example, sentences may be organized in paradigms according to the category "the purpose of communication", in such paradigms declarative, interrogative and imperative sentence patterns of the same sentence invariant are opposed, *e.g.: He laughed. – Did he laugh? – Let him laugh*. Since these relations can't be observed in actual speech they are also described as relations "in absentia" ("in the absence"). [5]

Paradigmatic relations coexist with syntagmatic relations in such a way that some sort of syntagmatic connection is necessary for the realisation of any paradigmatic series. This is especially evident -in a classical grammatical paradigm which presents a productive series of forms each consisting of a syntagmatic connection of two elements: one common for the whole of the series (stem), the other specific for every individual form in the series (grammatical feature – inflexion, suffix, auxiliary word). Grammatical paradigms express various grammatical categories.

The minimal paradigm consists of two form-stages. This kind of paradigm we see, for instance, in the expression of the category of number: *boy – boys*. A more complex paradigm can be divided into component paradigmatic series, i.e. into the corresponding sub-paradigms *(cf.* numerous paradigmatic series constituting the system of the finite verb). In other words, with paradigms, the same as with any other systemically organised material, macro- and micro-series are to be discriminated.

Paradigmatic relations exist not only in grammar, but in the phonetical and lexical systems of language as well. For example, paradigmatic relations exist between vowels and consonants, voiced and voiceless consonants, etc.; between synonyms and antonyms, in topical groups of words, word-building models, etc. But paradigmatic relations are of primary importance for grammar, as the grammar of language is above all systemic.

5. Interrelation of Theoretical Grammar with other branches of linguistics.

Theoretical grammar is obviously related to other branches of linguistics. First of all each of the three constituent parts of language is studied by a particular linguistic discipline. These disciplines, presenting a series of approaches to their particular objects of analysis, give the corresponding "descriptions" of language consisting in ordered expositions of the constituent parts in question. Thus, the phonological description of language is effected by the science of phonology; the lexical description of language is effected by the science of lexicology; the grammatical description of language is effected by the science of grammar.

Theoretical grammar is also connected with phonology, which can be proved by the fact that a word stress may change a part of speech. *E.g.: to import (v) – ímport (n); to expórt (v) – éxport (n)*, etc. A change of intonation may change the communicative type of a sentence: *We surrender* (a declarative sentence) – *We surrender?!* (an interrogative-negative emotional sentence).

Grammar is also related to lexicology: it is not indifferent as to the meaning of words: the meaning of a word may change the type of the predicate in a sentence. *E.g.:* a) *He made a good report.* b) *He made a good reporter.* In the first sentence we

observe a simple verbal predicate while in the second sentence we see a compound nominal predicate.

Interrelation of theoretical grammar to practical one is also undisputable, but their purposes are different: the purpose of practical (or prescriptive) grammar is to prescribe the rules how to correct build sentences, or the Past Indefinite forms, or the plural number forms, etc., while the main purpose of theoretical (scientific, descriptive) grammar is to give a scientific description and analysis of the structure of Modern English and its grammatical categories along with the purpose of giving students a deeper insight into the mechanism, processes and tendencies in the grammatical structure of English.

Questions for Reflection:

1. Why is the language considered to be a systematic phenomenon?

2. What basic subsystems is each language subdivided into? What do they study?

3. What segmental and supra-segmental units of the language do you know?

4. What is a hierarchy of levels that segmental lingual units form?

5. Why do we have to stratify language and speech?

6. What are two fundamental types of relations between lingual units? Can you describe them?

Topic 2. Basic Grammatical and Morphological Notions.

Questions for Discussion:
1. Grammatical meaning and the means of its expression.
2. Grammatical form and its types.
3. The study of the grammatical category and its kinds.
4. The theory and types of morphological oppositions.
5. The concept of the morpheme and its structural types.
6. The notion of the word and its morphemic structure.

1. Grammatical meaning and the means of its expression.

The grammatical meaning is the essential part of a grammatical category, which is defined as a unity of a grammatical meaning and a morphological way of its expression. The peculiarities of the grammatical meaning are especially evident in comparison with the lexical meaning.

Lexical meaning is the individual meaning of the word (*e.g.: table*). *Grammatical meaning* is the meaning of the whole class or a subclass. For example, the class of nouns has the grammatical meaning of thingness. If we take a noun (*table*) we may say that it possesses its individual lexical meaning (it corresponds to a definite piece of furniture) and the grammatical meaning of thingness (this is the meaning of the whole class). Besides, the noun '*table*' has the grammatical meaning of a subclass – countableness.

There are some classes of words that are devoid of any lexical meaning and possess the grammatical meaning only. This can be explained by the fact that they have no referents in the objective reality. All function words belong to this group – articles, particles, prepositions, etc.

Thus, grammatical meaning is an abstract, generalized meaning, typical of large groups of words and formally expressed by inflexions or zero inflexions in opposition.

According to *the way of expression* the grammatical meaning can be **explicit** and **implicit**. The implicit grammatical meaning is not expressed formally (*e.g.* the word *table* does not contain any hints in its form as to it being inanimate). The explicit grammatical meaning is always marked morphologically – it has its marker. In the word *cats* the grammatical meaning of plurality is shown in the form of the noun; cat's – here the grammatical meaning of possessiveness is shown by the form 's; *is asked* – shows the explicit grammatical meaning of passiveness. [6, p. 43]

The implicit grammatical meaning may be of two types – *general* and *dependent*. The general grammatical meaning is the meaning of the whole word-class, of a part of speech (*e.g.* nouns – the general grammatical meaning of thingness). The dependent grammatical meaning is the meaning of a subclass within the same part of speech.

The 2nd classification of the grammatical meaning is based on the attitude to *objective reality* and can be **extralingual** and **introlingual**. *Extralingual* grammatical meaning is situationally conditioned, motivated, the choice of grammatical forms is free (*e.g.: Give me a book. Give me the book.*). The meanings of definiteness-indefiniteness are extralingual because the choice of the article is grammatically free. *Introlingual* grammatical meaning is not situationally conditioned but conditioned by the language structure, motivated, the choice of grammatical forms is bound. Introlingual grammatical meanings are found in the following cases: 1) When there is only one grammatical form for expressing grammatical meaning (*e.g.: The news is so exciting*). 2) When the grammatical meaning is syntactically predetermined (*e.g.: I saw him.* – the meaning of the

objective case depends on the syntactical structure). 3) When the grammatical meaning correlates with the lexical element in the sentence. (*e.g.: Yesterday I saw him*) In real speech one and the same grammatical meaning may be either introlingual or extralingual, e.g. the grammatical meaning of plurality is extralingual in class nouns).

2. Grammatical form and its types.

The grammatical form is a means of expressing grammatical meaning. It is traditionally divided into *synthetical* and *analytical;* accordingly, the grammatical forms themselves are classed into synthetical and analytical, too.

Synthetical grammatical forms are realised by the inner morphemic composition of the word, while *analytical* grammatical forms are built up by a combination of at least two words, one of which is a grammatical auxiliary (word-morpheme), and the other, a word of "substantial" meaning. Synthetical grammatical forms are based on inner inflexion (vowel interchange inside the root, *e.g.: goose – geese*), outer inflexion (with the help of adding grammatical suffixes to the stems of the words, *e.g.: cat – cats*), and suppletivity (when different roots are combined within the same paradigm, *e.g.: go – went*); hence, the forms are referred to as inner-inflexional, outer-inflexional, and suppletive.

Inner inflexion is used in English in irregular verbs (the bulk of them belong to the Germanic strong verbs) for the formation of the past indefinite and past participle; besides, it is used in a few nouns for the formation of the plural. Since the corresponding oppositions of forms are based on phonemic interchange, the initial paradigmatic form of each lexeme should also be considered as inflexional. *E.g.:* take – took – taken, drive –

drove – driven, keep – kept – kept, etc.; man – men, brother – brethren, etc.

Suppletivity, like inner inflexion, is not productive as a purely morphological type of form [22]. It is based on the correlation of different roots as a means of paradigmatic differentiation. In other words, it consists in the grammatical interchange of word roots, and this, as we pointed out in the foregoing chapter, unites it in principle with inner inflexion (or, rather, makes the latter into a specific variety of the former).

Suppletivity is used in the forms of the verbs *be* and *go,* in the irregular forms of the degrees of comparison, in some forms of personal pronouns. *E.g.:* be – am – are – is – was – were; go – went; good – better; bad – worse; much – more; little – less; I – me; we – us; she – her.

In a broader morphological interpretation, suppletivity can be recognised in paradigmatic correlations of some modal verbs, some indefinite pronouns, as well as certain nouns of peculiar categorial properties (lexemic suppletivity). *E.g.:* can – be able; must – have (to), be obliged (to); may – be allowed (to); one – some; man – people; news – items of news; information – pieces of information; etc.

The shown unproductive synthetical means of English morphology are outbalanced by the productive means of affixation (outer inflexion), which amount to grammatical suffixation (grammatical prefixation could only be observed in the Old English verbal system).

Taking this into account, and considering also the fact that each grammatical form paradigmatically correlates with at least one other grammatical form on the basis of the category expressed *(e.g.* the form of the singular with the form of the plural), we come to the conclusion that the total number of synthetical forms in English morphology, though certainly not very large, at the

same time is not so small as it is commonly believed. Scarce in English are not the synthetical forms as such, but the actual affixal segments on which the paradigmatic differentiation of forms is based.

As for analytical grammatical forms that are prevalent in English; they are built by the combination of the notional word with auxiliary words, *e.g.: come – have come*. Analytical forms consist of two words which together express one grammatical meaning; in other words, they are grammatically idiomatic: the meaning of the grammatical form is not immediately dependent on the meanings of its parts. Analytical grammatical forms are intermediary between words and word-combinations. Some analytical forms are closer to a word, because the two parts are inseparable in their grammatical idiomatism; for example, the forms of the perfect aspect: come – have come. The components of some other analytical forms are more independent semantically, and they are less idiomatic grammatically; for example, the degrees of comparison: beautiful – more beautiful – the most beautiful. Such combinations of an auxiliary component and a basic component are treated by some linguists as free word-combinations, but as they are correlative members of grammatical paradigms and express some specific grammatical meaning, they should be recognized as analytical grammatical forms too. Some lexical means regularly involved in the expression of common grammatical meanings can also be regarded as marginal cases of suppletivity or specific analytical forms, *e.g.:* the use of quantifiers with uncountable nouns or repetition groups – *a bit of joy, the last two items of news, thousands and thousands*, etc.

The scientific achievement of the study of "idiomatic" analytism in different languages is essential and indisputable. On the other hand, the demand that "grammatical idiomatism" should be regarded as the basis of "grammatical analytism" seems,

logically, too strong. The analytical means underlying the forms in question consist in the discontinuity of the corresponding lexemic constituents. Proceeding from this fundamental principle, it can hardly stand to reason to exclude "unidiomatic" grammatical combinations (i.e. combinations of oppositional-categorial significance) from the system of analytical expression as such. Rather, they should be regarded as an integral part of this system, in which, the provision granted, a gradation of idiomatism is to be recognised. In this case, alongside of the classical analytical forms of verbal perfect or continuous, such analytical forms should also be discriminated as the analytical infinitive *(go – to go),* the analytical verbal person (verb plus personal pronoun), the analytical as well as some other, still more unconventional form-types.

Functional re-evaluation of grammatical forms is a source of constant linguistic interest. We may say with little fear of exaggeration that whatever may be the other problems of grammar learning the polysemantic character of grammatical forms is always very important.

3. The study of the grammatical category and its kinds.
The generalized meaning rendered by paradigmatically correlated grammatical forms is called "categorial".

Category is a logical notion denoting the reflection of the most general properties of phenomena. Categorial meanings in grammar are expressed by grammatical paradigms. For example, within the system of the English noun the generalized, categorial meaning of "number" is expressed grammatically through the paradigmatic correlation (or, opposition in a paradigm) of two members, of two grammatical forms, each with its own grammatical meaning: the singular (*e.g.: cat*) and the plural (*cats*).

Thus, the definition of grammatical category is as follows: *grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized categorial meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms* [9, p. 24].

In other words, it is a unity of a generalized grammatical meaning and the forms of its expression.

The grammatical categories which are realised by the described types of forms organised in functional paradigmatic oppositions, can either be innate for a given class of words, or only be expressed on the surface of it, serving as a sign of correlation with some other class.

For instance, the category of number is organically connected with the functional nature of the noun; it directly exposes the number of the referent substance, *e.g.: one ship – several ships.* The category of number in the verb, however, by no means gives a natural meaningful characteristic to the denoted process: the process is devoid of numerical features such as are expressed by the grammatical number. Indeed, what is rendered by the verbal number is not a quantitative characterisation of the process, but a numerical featuring of the subject-referent. *E.g.:* The *girl* is smiling. – The *girls* are smiling. The *ship* is in the harbour. — The *ships* are in the harbour.

Thus, from the point of view of referent relation, grammatical categories should be divided into "immanent" categories, i.e. categories innate for a given lexemic class, and "reflective" categories, i.e. categories of a secondary, derivative semantic value. Categorial forms based on subordinative grammatical agreement (such as the verbal person, the verbal number) are reflective, while categorial forms stipulating grammatical agreement in lexemes of a contiguous word-class (such as the substantive-pronominal person, the substantive number) are immanent. Immanent are also such categories and

their forms as are closed within a word-class, i.e. do not transgress its borders; to these belong the tense of the verb, the comparison of the adjective and adverb, etc.

Another essential division of grammatical categories is based on the changeability factor of the exposed feature. Namely, the feature of the referent expressed by the category can be either constant (unchangeable, "derivational"), or variable (changeable, "demutative").

An example of constant feature category can be seen in the category of gender, which divides the class of English nouns into non-human names, human male names, human female names, and human common gender names. This division is represented by the system of the third person pronouns serving as gender-indices (see further). *E.g.: It* (non-human): mountain, city, forest, cat, bee, etc. *He* (male human): man, father, husband, uncle, etc. *She* (female human): woman, lady, mother, girl, etc. *He* or *she* (common human): person, parent, child, cousin, etc.

Variable feature categories can be exemplified by the substantive number (singular – plural) or the degrees of comparison (positive – comparative – superlative).

Constant feature categories reflect the static classifications of phenomena, while variable feature categories expose various connections between phenomena. Some marginal categorial forms may acquire intermediary status, being located in-between the corresponding categorial poles. For instance, the nouns singularia tantum and pluralia tantum present a case of hybrid variable-constant formations, since their variable feature of number has become "rigid", or "lexicalised". *E.g.:* news, advice, progress; people, police; bellows, tongs; colours, letters; etc.

In distinction to these, the gender word-building pairs should be considered as a clear example of hybrid constant-variable formations, since their constant feature of gender has

acquired some changeability properties, i.e. has become to a certain extent "grammaticalised". *E.g.:* actor – *actress, author – authoress, lion – lioness*, etc.

4. The theory and types of morphological oppositions.

As it was mentioned above, a generalized grammatical meaning is expressed by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms.

The ordered set of grammatical forms expressing a categorical function constitutes a paradigm.

The paradigmatic correlations of grammatical forms in a category are exposed by the so-called "grammatical oppositions".

The opposition (in the linguistic sense) may be defined as a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed. The correlated elements (members) of the opposition must possess two types of features: common features and differential features. Common features serve as the basis of contrast, while differential features immediately express the function in question.

The oppositional theory was originally formulated as a phonological theory. Three main qualitative types of oppositions were established in phonology: "privative", "gradual", and "equipollent". By the number of members contrasted, oppositions were divided into **binary** (two members) and **more than binary** (ternary, quaternary, etc.).

The most important type of opposition is the **binary privative opposition**; the other types of oppositions are reducible to the binary privative opposition.

The binary privative opposition is formed by a contrastive pair of members in which one member is characterised by the presence of a certain differential feature ("mark"), while the other member is characterized by the absence of this feature. The

member in which the feature is present is called the "marked", or "strong", or "positive" member, and is commonly designated by the symbol + (plus); the member in which the feature is absent is called the "unmarked", or "weak", or "negative" member, and is commonly designated by the symbol – (minus).

For instance, the voiced and devoiced consonants form a privative opposition [b, d, g – p, t, k]. The differential feature of the opposition is "voice". This feature is present in the voiced consonants, so their set forms the marked member of the opposition. The devoiced consonants, lacking the feature, form the unmarked member of the opposition. To stress the marking quality of "voice" for the opposition in question, the devoiced consonants may be referred to as "non-voiced".

The **gradual** opposition is formed by a contrastive group of members which are distinguished not by the presence or absence of a feature, but by the degree of it.

For instance, the front vowels [i:–i–e–ae] form a quaternary gradual opposition, since they are differentiated by the degree of their openness (their length, as is known, is also relevant, as well as some other individualizing properties, but these factors do not spoil the gradual opposition as such).

The **equipollent** opposition is formed by a contrastive pair or group in which the members are distinguished by different positive features.

For instance, the phonemes [m] and [b], both bilabial consonants, form an equipollent opposition, [m] being sonorous nazalised, [b] being plosive.

It has been have noted above that any opposition can be reformulated in privative terms. Indeed, any positive feature distinguishing an oppositionally characterised lingual element is absent in the oppositionally correlated element, so that considered from the point of view of this feature alone, the opposition, by

definition, becomes privative. This reformulation is especially helpful on an advanced stage of oppositional study of a given microsystem, because it enables us to characterize the elements of the system by the corresponding strings ("bundles") of values of their oppositional featuring ("bundles of differential features"), each feature being represented by the values + or − .

For instance, [p] is distinguished from [b] as voiceless (voice −), from [t] as bilabial (labialisation +), from [m] as non-nazalised (nazalisation −), etc. The descriptive advantages of this kind of characterization are self-evident.

Unlike phonemes which are monolateral lingual elements, words as units of morphology are bilateral; therefore morphological oppositions must reflect both the plane of expression (form) and the plane of content (meaning).

The most important type of opposition in morphology, the same as in phonology, is the binary privative opposition.

The privative morphological opposition is based on a morphological differential feature which is present in its strong parked) member and absent in its weak (unmarked) member. In another kind of wording, this differential feature may be said to mark one of the members of the opposition positively (the strong member), and the other one negatively (the weak member). The featuring in question serves as the immediate means of expressing a grammatical meaning.

For instance, the expression of the verbal present and past tenses is based on a privative opposition the differential feature of which is the dental suffix *-(e)d*. This suffix, rendering the meaning of the past tense, marks the past form of the verb positively *(we worked)*, and the present form negatively *(we work)*.

The meanings differentiated by the oppositions of signemic units (signemic oppositions) are referred to as "semantic features", or "semes".

For instance, the nounal form cats expresses the seme of plurality, as opposed to the form cat which expresses, by contrast, the seme of singularity. The two forms constitute a privative opposition in which the plural is the marked member. In order to stress the negative marking of the singular, it can be referred to as "non-plural".

It should be noted that the designation of the weak members of privative morphological oppositions by the "non-" terms is significant not only from the point of view of the plane of expression, but also from the point of view of the plane of content. It is connected with the fact that the meaning of the weak member of the privative opposition is more general and abstract as compared with the meaning of the strong member, which is, respectively, more particular and concrete. Due to this difference in meaning, the weak member is used in a wider range of contexts than the strong member. For instance, the present tense form of the verb, as different from the past tense, is used to render meanings much broader than those directly implied by the corresponding time-plane as such. *E.g.:*

The sun *rises* in the East. To err *is* human. They *don't speak* French in this part of the country.

Equipollent oppositions in the system of English morphology constitute a minor type and are mostly confined to formal relations only. An example of such an opposition can be seen in the correlation of the person forms of the verb be: *am – are – is.*

Gradual oppositions in morphology are not generally recognized; in principle, they can be identified as a minor type on the semantic level only. An example of the gradual morphological opposition can be seen in the category of comparison: *strong – stronger – strongest.*

A grammatical category must be expressed by at least one opposition of forms. These forms are ordered in a paradigm in grammatical descriptions.

Both equipollent and gradual oppositions in morphology, the same as in phonology, can be reduced to privative oppositions within the framework of an oppositional presentation of some categorial system as a whole. Thus, a word-form, like a phoneme, can be represented by a bundle of values of differential features, graphically exposing its categorial structure. For instance, the verb-form listens is marked negatively as the pre-sent tense (tense −), negatively as the indicative mood (mood −), negatively as the passive voice (voice −), positively as the third person (person +), etc. This principle of presentation, making a morphological description more compact, at the same time has the advantage of precision and helps penetrate deeper into the inner mechanisms of grammatical categories [2, p. 27-30].

5. The concept of the morpheme and its structural types.

The **morpheme** is the elementary meaningful lingual unit built up from phonemes and used to make words. It has meaning, but its meaning is abstract, significative, not concrete, or nominative, as is that of the word [2, p. 12]. Morphemes constitute the words; they do not exist outside the words. Studying the morpheme we actually study the word: its inner structure, its functions, and the ways it enters speech.

Stating the differences between the word and the morpheme, we have to admit that the correlation between the word and the morpheme is problematic. The borderlines between the morpheme and the word are by no means rigid and there is a set of intermediary units (half-words − half-morphemes), which form an area of transitions between the word and the morpheme as

the polar phenomena. This includes the so-called "morpheme-like" functional, or auxiliary words, for example, auxiliary verbs and adverbs, articles, particles, prepositions and conjunctions: they are realized as isolated, separate units (their separateness being fixed in written practice) but perform various grammatical functions; in other words, they function like morphemes and are dependent semantically to a greater or lesser extent. *E.g..: Jack's, a boy, have done*.

This approach to treating various lingual units is known in linguistics as "a field approach": polar phenomena possessing the unambiguous characteristic features of the opposed units constitute "the core", or "the center" of the field, while the intermediary phenomena combining some of the characteristics of the poles make up "the periphery" of the field; e.g.: functional words make up the periphery of the class of words since their functioning is close to the functioning of morphemes.

When studying morphemes, we should distinguish morphemes as generalized lingual units from their concrete manifestations, or variants in specific textual environments; variants of morphemes are called "*allo-morphs*".

Initially, the so-called allo-emic theory was developed in phonetics: in phonetics, phonemes, as the generalized, invariant phonological units, are distinguished from their concrete realizations, the allophones. For example, one phoneme is pronounced in a different way in different environments, *e.g.: you [ju:] – you know [ju]*; in Russian, vowels are also pronounced in a different way in stressed and unstressed syllables, *e.g.: дом – домой*. The same applies to the morpheme, which is a generalized unit, an invariant, and may be represented by different variants, allo-morphs, in different textual environments. For example, the morpheme of the plural, *-(e)s*, sounds differently after voiceless consonants (bats), voiced consonants and vowels (rooms), and

after fricative and sibilant consonants (clashes). So, [s], [z], [iz], which are united by the same meaning (the grammatical meaning of the plural), are allo-morphs of the same morpheme, which is represented as -(e)s in written speech.

The "allo-emic theory" in the study of morphemes was also developed within the framework of Descriptive Linguistics by means of the so-called distributional analysis: in the first stage of distributional analysis a syntagmatic chain of lingual units is divided into meaningful segments, morphs, *e.g.: he/ start/ed/ laugh/ing/*; then the recurrent segments are analyzed in various textual environments, and the following three types of distribution are established: **contrastive distribution**, **non-contrastive distribution** and **complementary distribution**. The morphs are said to be in contrastive distribution if they express different meanings in identical environments the compared morphs, *e.g.: He started laughing – He starts laughing*; such morphs constitute different morphemes. The morphs are said to be in non-contrastive distribution if they express identical meaning in identical environments; such morphs constitute 'free variants' of the same morpheme, *e.g.: learned – learnt, ate [et] – ate [eit]* (in Russian: трактора – тракторы). The morphs are said to be in complementary distribution if they express identical meanings in different environments, *e.g.: He started laughing – He stopped laughing*; such morphs constitute variants, or allo-morphs of the same morpheme. [17, p. 56]

The allo-morphs of the plural morpheme -(e)s [s], [z], [iz] stand in phonemic complementary distribution; the allo-morph –en, as in *oxen*, stands in morphemic complementary distribution with the other allo-morphs of the plural morpheme.

Besides these traditional types of morphemes, in Descriptive Linguistics distributional morpheme types are

distinguished; they immediately correlate with each other in the following pairs.

On the basis of the **degree of self-dependence**, *"free"* morphemes and *"bound"* morphemes are distinguished. Bound morphemes cannot form words by themselves, they are identified only as component segmental parts of words. As different from this, free morphemes can build up words by themselves, i.e. can be used "freely".

For instance, in the word *handful* the root *hand* is a free morpheme, while the suffix *-ful* is a bound morpheme.

There are very few productive bound morphemes in the morphological system of English. Being extremely narrow, the list of them is complicated by the relations of homonymy. These morphemes are the following:

1) the segments *-(e)s* [-z, -s, -iz]: the plural of nouns, the possessive case of nouns, the third person singular present of verbs;

2) the segments *-(e)d* [-d, -t, -id]: the past and past participle of verbs;

3) the segments *-ing:* the gerund and present participle;

4) the segments *-er, -est:* the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives and adverbs.

The auxiliary word-morphemes of various standings should be interpreted in this connection as "semi-bound" morphemes, since, being used as separate elements of speech strings, they form categorial unities with their notional stem-words.

On the basis of **formal presentation**, *"overt"* morphemes and *"covert"* morphemes are distinguished. Overt morphemes are genuine, explicit morphemes building up words; the covert morpheme is identified as a contrastive absence of morpheme expressing a certain function. The notion of covert morpheme

coincides with the notion of zero morpheme in the oppositional description of grammatical categories.

For instance, the word-form *clocks* consists of two overt morphemes: one lexical (root) and one grammatical expressing the plural. The outwardly one-morpheme word-form *clock,* since it expresses the singular, is also considered as consisting of two morphemes, i.e. of the overt root and the co\ert (implicit) grammatical suffix of the singular. The usual symbol for the covert morpheme employed by linguists is the sign of the empty set: 0.

On the basis of **segmental relation***,* "*segmental*" morphemes and "*supra-segmental*" morphemes are distinguished. Interpreted as supra-segmental morphemes in distributional terms are intonation contours, accents, pauses.

The said elements of language should be considered signemic units of language, since they are functionally bound. They form the secondary line of speech, accompanying its primary phonemic line. On the other hand, from what has been stated about the morpheme proper, it is not difficult to see that the morphemic interpretation of suprasegmental units can hardly stand to reason. Indeed, these units are functionally connected not with morphemes, but with larger elements of language: words, word-groups, sentences, supra-sentential constructions.

On the basis of **grammatical alternation***,* "*additive*" morphemes and "*replacive*" morphemes are distinguished.

Interpreted as additive morphemes are outer grammatical suffixes, since, as a rule, they are opposed to the absence of morphemes in grammatical alternation. *E.g:. look+ed; small+er*, etc. In distinction to these, the root phonemes of grammatical interchange are considered as replacive morphemes, since they replace one another in the paradigmatic forms. *E.g.:* dr-i-ve – dr-o-ve – dr-i-ven; m-a-n – m-e-n; etc.

It should be remembered that the phonemic interchange is unproductive in English as in all the Indo-European languages. If it were productive, it might rationally be interpreted as a sort of replacive "infixation" (correlated with "exfixation" of the additive type). As it stands, however, this type of grammatical means can be understood as a kind of suppletivity (i.e. partial suppletivity).

On the basis of **linear characteristic**, "*continuous*" (or "linear") morphemes and "*discontinuous*" morphemes are distinguished.

By the discontinuous morpheme, opposed to the, continuous morpheme, a two-element grammatical unit is meant which is identified in the analytical grammatical form comprising an auxiliary word and a grammatical suffix. These two elements, as it were, embed the notional stem; hence, they are symbolically represented as follows:

be ... ing – for the continuous verb forms *(e.g.:* is going);

have ... en – for the perfect verb forms *(e.g.:* has gone);

be ... en – for the passive verb forms *(e.g.:* is taken)

Many of the distributional morpheme types contradict the traditional definition of the morpheme: traditionally the morpheme is the smallest meaningful lingual unit (this is contradicted by the "empty" morphemes type), built up by phonemes (this is contradicted by the "supra-segmental" morphemes type), used to build up words (this is contradicted by the "discontinuous" morphemes type). This is due to the fact that in Descriptive Linguistics only three lingual units are distinguished: the phoneme, the morpheme, and syntactic constructions; the notion of the word is rejected because of the difficulties of defining it. Still, the classification of distributional morpheme types can be used to summarize and differentiate various types of word-building and word-changing, though not all of them are morphemic in the current mainstream understanding of the term "morpheme".

6. The notion of the word and its morphemic structure.

It is very difficult to give a rigorous and at the same time universal definition to the word, i.e. such a definition as would unambiguously apply to all the different word-units of the lexicon. This difficulty is explained by the fact that the word is an extremely complex phenomenon. Within the framework of different linguistic theories the word is defined as the minimal potential sentence, the minimal free linguistic form, the elementary component of the sentence, the articulate sound-symbol, the grammatically arranged combination of sound with meaning, the meaningfully integral and immediately identifiable lingual unit, the uninterrupted string of morphemes, etc. None of these definitions, which can be divided into formal, functional, and mixed, has the power to precisely cover all the lexical segments of language without a residue remaining outside the field of definition.

The said difficulties compel some linguists to refrain from accepting the word as the basic element of language. In particular, American scholar L. Bloomfield, recognised not the word and the sentence, but the phoneme and the morpheme as the basic categories of linguistic description, because these units are the easiest to be isolated in the continual text due to their "physically" minimal character: the phoneme being the minimal formal segment of language, the morpheme, the minimal meaningful segment [15]. Accordingly, only two segmental levels were originally identified in language by Descriptive scholars: the phonemic level and the morphemic level; later on a third one was added to these – the level of "constructions", i.e. the level of morphemic combinations.

In fact, if we take such notional words as, say, *water, pass, yellow* and the like, as well as their simple derivatives, *e.g.: watery, passer, yellowness,* we shall easily see their definite nominative

function and unambiguous segmental delimitation, making them beyond all doubt into "separate words of language". But if we compare with the given one-stem words the corresponding composite formations, such as *waterman, password, yellowback,* we shall immediately note that the identification of the latter as separate words is much complicated by the fact that they themselves are decomposable into separate words.

In traditional grammar, the study of the **morphemic structure of the word** is based on two criteria: *the positional criterion* – the location of the morphemes with regard to each other, and *the semantic* (or functional) *criterion* – the contribution of the morphemes to the general meaning of the word.

According to these criteria morphemes are divided into *root-morphemes* (roots) and *affixal morphemes* (affixes). Roots express the concrete, "material" part of the meaning of the word and constitute its central part. Affixes express the specificational part of the meaning of the word: they specify, or transform the meaning of the root. Affixal specification may be of two kinds: of lexical or grammatical character. So, according to the semantic criterion affixes are further subdivided into lexical, or word-building (derivational) affixes, which together with the root constitute the stem of the word, and grammatical, or word-changing affixes, expressing different morphological categories, such as number, case, tense and others. With the help of lexical affixes new words are derived, or built; with the help of grammatical affixes the form of the word is changed.

According to the positional criterion affixes are divided into *prefixes*, situated before the root in the word, *e.g.: under-estimate*, and *suffixes*, situated after the root, *e.g.: underestim-ate*.

Prefixes in English are only lexical: the word underestimate is derived from the word estimate with the help of the prefix under-. Suffixes in English may be either lexical or grammatical; e.g. in the

word underestimates -ate is a lexical suffix, because it is used to derive the verb estimate (v) from the noun esteem (n), and –s is a grammatical suffix making the 3rd person, singular form of the verb to underestimate. Grammatical suffixes are also called inflexions (inflections, inflectional endings).

Grammatical suffixes in English have certain peculiarities, which make them different from inflections in other languages: since they are the remnants of the old inflectional system, there are few (only six) remaining word-changing suffixes in English: -(e)s, -ed, -ing, -er, -est, -en; most of them are homonymous, *e.g.:* -(e)s is used to form the plural of the noun (dogs), the genitive of the noun (my friend's), and the 3rd person singular of the verb (works); some of them have lost their inflectional properties and can be attached to units larger than the word, *e.g.: his daughter Mary's arrival.* That is why the term "inflection" is seldom used to denote the grammatical components of words in English.

Grammatical suffixes form word-changing, or morphological paradigms of words, which can be observed to their full extent in inflectional languages, such as Russian, *e.g.: стол – стола – столу – столом - о столе*; morphological paradigms exist, though not on the same scale, in English too, e.g., the number paradigm of the noun: boy – boys.

Lexical affixes are primarily studied by lexicology with regard to the meaning which they contribute to the general meaning of the whole word. In grammar word-building suffixes are studied as the formal marks of the words belonging to different parts of speech; they form lexical (word-building, derivational) paradigms of words united by a common root, *e.g.:*

> *to decide – decision – decisive – decisively*
> *to incise – incision – incisive – incisively*

Being the formal marks of words of different parts of speech, word-building suffixes are also grammatically relevant.

But grammar study is primarily concerned with grammatical, word-changing, or functional affixes, because they change the word according to its grammatical categories.

Summing up what has been said above, we may point out some of the properties of the morpheme and the word which are fundamental from the point of view of their systemic status and therefore require detailed investigations and descriptions.

The morpheme is a meaningful segmental component of the word; the morpheme is formed by phonemes; as a meaningful component of the word it is elementary (i.e. indivisible into smaller segments as regards its significative function).

The word is a nominative unit of language; it is formed by morphemes; it enters the lexicon of language as its elementary component (i.e. a component indivisible into smaller segments as regards its nominative function); together with other nominative units the word is used for the formation of the sentence – a unit of information in the communication process.

Questions for Reflection:
1. What is the grammatical meaning? Is there any difference between grammatical and lexical meanings?

2. What is a grammatical form? What types of form-building in English do you know?

3. What is the grammatical category? Why is opposition the basis of the grammatical category?

4. What kinds of oppositions are there in morphology?

5. What is the purpose of the distributional analysis? What terms appeared due to the distributional analysis?

6. What is the classification of morphemes according to the functional features?

Topic 3. The Theory of Grammatical Classes of Words.

Questions for Discussion:
1. The study of grammatical classes of words.
2. Contemporary criteria for classifying words into parts of speech.
3. A comprehensive approach to the discrimination of parts of speech.
4. The notional and functional parts of speech.
5. Parts of speech subcategorisation.

1. The study of grammatical classes of words.
The words of language, depending on various formal and semantic features, are divided into grammatically relevant sets or classes. The traditional grammatical classes of words are called "parts of speech". Since the word is distinguished not only by grammatical, but also by semantico-lexemic properties, some scholars (V. Smirnitsky) refer to parts of speech as "lexico-grammatical" series of words, or as **"lexico-grammatical categories"** [12, p. 100]. Prof. M. Blokh introduced the term **"grammatical classes"**. He starts from the assumption that what is traditionally called a part of speech is a type of word, which grammatically differs from other types of words. [2, p. 68]

It should be noted that the traditional term "parts of speech" was developed in Ancient Greek linguistics and reflects the fact that at that time there was no distinction between language as a system and speech, between the word as a part of an utterance and the word as a part of lexis. The term "parts of speech" is accepted by modern linguistics as a conventional, or "non-explanatory" term ("name-term") to denote the *lexico-grammatical classes of words correlating with each other in the*

general system of language on the basis of their grammatically relevant properties.

The system of parts of speech is historically changeable, e.g. articles, modal verbs, statives were not recognized as separate parts of speech in Old English, though they are recognized as such in Modern English. As a matter of fact one should recognize that language vocabulary is not a chaotic mass of words, grammar organizes these words into grammatical classes of words and every new lexeme, appearing in the language, should join one of the existing classes and share the features of other lexemes of the same class. The theory of parts of speech is problematic and controversial, since many aspects of it have not been agreed upon. The most disputable issues are: 1) the principles of word discrimination; 2) the number of parts of speech in a certain language; 3) the qualitative division of parts of speech.

2. Contemporary criteria for classifying words into parts of speech.

The problem of word classification into parts of speech still remains one of the most controversial problems in modern linguistics. The attitude of grammarians with regard to parts of speech and the basis of their classification varied a good deal at different times. Only in English grammarians have been vacillating between 3 and 13 parts of speech. There are four approaches to the problem:

Classical (logical-inflectional)
Functional
Distributional
Complex

The **classical** parts of speech theory goes back to ancient times. It is based on Latin grammar. According to the Latin classification of the parts of speech all words were divided

dichotomically into declinable and indeclinable parts of speech. This system was reproduced in the earliest English grammars. The first of these groups, *declinable words*, included nouns, pronouns, verbs and participles, the second – *indeclinable words* – adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. The logical-inflectional classification is quite successful for Latin or other languages with developed morphology and synthetic paradigms but it cannot be applied to the English language because the principle of declinability/indeclinability is not relevant for analytical languages.

A new approach to the problem was introduced in the XIX century by Henry Sweet [23, p. 77]. This approach may be defined as **functional**. He resorted to the functional features of words and singled out *nominative units* and *particles*. To nominative parts of speech belonged noun-words (noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund), adjective-words (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participles), verb (finite verb, verbals – gerund, infinitive, participles), while adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection belonged to the group of particles. However, though the criterion for classification was functional, Henry Sweet failed to break the tradition and classified words into those having morphological forms and lacking morphological forms, in other words, declinable and indeclinable.

A **distributional** approach to the parts of speech classification can be illustrated by the classification introduced by Charles Fries. He wanted to avoid the traditional terminology and establish a classification of words based on distributive analysis, that is, the ability of words to combine with other words of different types. Within this approach, the part of speech is a functioning pattern and a word belonging to the same class should be the same only in one aspect – occupy the same position and perform the same syntactic function in speech utterances. Charles

Fries introduced this classification. He used the **method of frames** (подстановки) *e.g.:*

Frame A
The concert was good.
Frame B
The clerk remembered the tax.
Frame C
The team went there.

Words that can substitute the word "concert", "clerk", "team", "the tax" (e.g. woman, food, coffee, etc.) are Class 1 words. Class 2 words are "was", "remembered" and "went". Words that can take the position of "good" are Class 3 words. Words that can fill the position of "there" are called Class 4 words. [19, p. 108]

It turned out that his four classes of words were practically the same as traditional nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. What is really valuable in Charles Fries' classification is his investigation of 15 groups of function words (form-classes) because he was the first linguist to pay attention to some of their peculiarities.

The drawback of this classification is that morphological and semantic properties are completely neglected, because words of different nature are treated as items of the same class and vice a versa.

In modern linguistics, parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of the three criteria: "semantic", "formal", and "functional".

The *semantic* criterion presupposes the evaluation of the generalized meaning, which is characteristic of all the subset of words constituting a given part of speech. This meaning is understood as the "categorial meaning of the part of speech". The *formal* criterion provides for the exposition of the specific

inflexional and derivational (word-building) features of all the lexemic subsets of a part of speech. The *functional* criterion concerns the syntactic role of words in the sentence typical of a part of speech. The said three factors of categorial characterization of words are conventionally referred to as, respectively, "meaning", "form", and "function".

3. A comprehensive approach to the discrimination of parts of speech.

The complex approach to the problem of parts of speech classification was introduced by academician L. V. Shcherba, who proposed to discriminate parts of speech on the basis of three criteria: **semantic, formal** and **functional**. By the *semantic* criterion he understood the generalized meaning or general grammatical meaning, which is characteristic of all the words, constituting a given part of speech, i.e. categorial meaning of parts of speech (e.g. the general grammatical meaning of nouns is substance; verbs – verbiality, i.e. the ability to express actions, processes or states; adverbs – adverbiality, i.e. the ability to express qualities or properties of actions, processes or states; adjectives – qualitiativeness, i.e. the ability to express qualities or properties of substances).

Taken separately, the semantic criterion cannot be sufficient for word class discrimination, as there are lexemes of a part of speech, which acquire the general meaning of the other part of speech (e.g. *action* – a noun, which expresses verbiality, *sleep* – a noun, which expresses process, *blackness* – a noun, which expresses quality). Thus, the general grammatical categorial meaning is important for part of speech classification, it is the intrinsic quality of a part of speech, it predetermines some outward properties of its lexemes but it cannot play the role of an absolute criterion of word classification.

The *formal* criterion provides for the exposition of the specific inflexional and derivational (word-building) features of words of a part of speech and deals with the morphological properties of words, which include: 1) the system of inflexional morphemes of words, typical of a certain part of speech; 2) the system of derivational lexico-grammatical morphemes, characteristic of a part of speech.

Each part of speech is characterized by its grammatical categories, manifested in the paradigms of lexemes (e.g. nouns – have the categories of number and case; verbs – have the categories of mood, tense, aspect, voice, person, number; adjectives – have the category of degrees of comparison). Thus, the paradigms of words, belonging to different parts of speech are different and these paradigms show to what part of speech the word belongs.

As words of different classes are also characterized by a specific system of derivational morphemes, the presence of a certain lexico-grammatical morpheme in the word signals its part of speech reference. Many of these derivational morphemes are regularly used to form the words of a part of speech, other stem-building elements are of little significance as distinctive features of a part of speech because they are not systematic and may be found within separate lexemes of a class (e.g.: food – feed; blood-bleed; full – fill). Thus, the morphological composition or stem-structure is one of the criteria employed for part of speech classification but it cannot function separately in order to classify words. Many English words of different classes consist only of roots and have no derivational morphemes in their structure.

The *functional* criterion concerns the syntactic properties of a part of speech, which are of two kinds: *combinability* and *syntactic functions in the sentence*. The *combinability* is the ability

of words of a given part of speech to be in syntactic connection with other words in the sentence. A word has different syntactic connections.

These connections are not equally significant for parts of speech reference. But the connection of the noun with the verb is less significant than its connection with the adjective. Owning to the lexico-grammatical meaning of nouns (substance) and prepositions (relation to substance) these two parts of speech often form up word combinations. The article is characterized by unilateral right-hand connections with different classes of words. Thus, the combinability of a word, its connections in speech help to show to what part of speech it belongs. Parts of speech perform certain syntactic functions in the sentence: nouns – of the subject and object, verbs – of predicates; adjectives – attributes) but the subject may be expressed not only by nouns and nouns can perform practically all syntactic functions. Thus, due to the little significance of the syntactic function of a word in identifying its class reference, this criterion is the least helpful.

None of the above mentioned criteria is sufficient to be an absolute principle of word discrimination. Only all of them taken together give a fully satisfactory basis for part of speech classification. Thus, a part of speech is a set of words characterized by identical properties: 1) general grammatical meaning; 2) lexico-grammatical morphemes (derivational or stem-building); 3) grammatical categories; 4) combinability; 5) functions in the sentence. As the dominant criteria in parts of speech classification are grammatical, it is reasonable to refer to word classes, traditionally called "parts of speech" as grammatical word classes.

4. The notional and functional parts of speech.

In accord with the described criteria, words on the upper level of classification are divided into notional and functional, which reflects their division in the earlier grammatical tradition into changeable and unchangeable.

To the *notional parts of speech* of the English language belong the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb, the adverb.

The *features of the noun* within the identificational triad "meaning – form – function" are, correspondingly, the following: 1) the categorial meaning of substance ("thingness"); 2) the changeable forms of number and case; the specific suffixal forms of derivation (prefixes in English do not discriminate parts of speech as such); 3) the substantive functions in the sentence (subject, object, substantival predicative); prepositional connections; modification by an adjective.

The *features of the adjective:* 1) the categorial meaning of property (qualitative and relative); 2) the forms of the degrees of comparison (for qualitative adjectives); the specific suffixal forms of derivation; 3) adjectival functions in the sentence (attribute to a noun, adjectival predicative).

The *features of the numeral:* 1) the categorial meaning of number (cardinal and ordinal); 2) the narrow set of simple numerals; the specific forms of composition for compound numerals; the specific suffixal forms of derivation for ordinal numerals; 3) the functions of numerical attribute and numerical substantive.

The *features of the pronoun:* 1) the categorial meaning of indication (deixis); 2) the narrow sets of various status with the corresponding formal properties of categorial changeability and word-building; 3) the substantival and adjectival functions for different sets.

The *features of the verb:* 1) the categorial meaning of process (presented in the two upper series of forms, respectively, as finite process and non-finite process); 2) the forms of the verbal categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood; the opposition of the finite and non-finite forms; 3) the function of the finite predicate for the finite verb; the mixed verbal – other than verbal functions for the non-finite verb.

The *features of the adverb:* 1) the categorial meaning of the secondary property, i.e. the property of process or another property; 2) the forms of the degrees of comparison for qualitative adverbs; the specific suffixal forms of derivation; 3) the functions of various adverbial modifiers.

Contrasted against the notional parts of speech are words of incomplete nominative meaning and non-self-dependent, mediatory functions in the sentence. These are *functional parts of speech*.

On the principle of "generalised form" only unchangeable words are traditionally treated under the heading of functional parts of speech. As for their individual forms as such, they are simply presented by the list, since the number of these words is limited, so that they needn't be identified on any general, operational scheme.

To the basic functional series of words in English belong the article, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal word, the interjection.

The *article* expresses the specific limitation of the substantive functions.

The *preposition* expresses the dependencies and interdependences of substantive referents.

The *conjunction* expresses connections of phenomena.

The *particle* unites the functional words of specifying and limiting meaning. To this series, alongside of other specifying

words, should be referred verbal postpositions as functional modifiers of verbs, etc.

The *modal word,* occupying in the sentence a more pronounced or less pronounced detached position, expresses the attitude of the speaker to the reflected situation and its parts. Here belong the functional words of probability (probably, perhaps, etc.), of qualitative evaluation (fortunately, unfortunately, luckily, etc.), and also of affirmation and negation.

The *interjection,* occupying a detached position in the sentence, is a signal of emotions.

5. Parts of speech subcategorisation.

Each part of speech after its identification is further subdivided into subseries in accord with various particular semantico-functional and formal features of the constituent words. This subdivision is sometimes called "subcategorisation" of parts of speech.

Thus, nouns are subcategorised into proper and common, animate and inanimate, countable and uncountable, concrete and abstract, etc. *E.g.:*

Mary, Robinson, London, the Mississippi, Lake Erie – girl, person, city, river, lake;

man, scholar, leopard, butterfly – earth, field, rose, machine;

coin/coins, floor/floors, kind/kinds – news, growth, water, furniture;

stone, grain, mist, leaf – honesty, love, slavery, darkness.

Verbs are subcategorised into fully predicative and partially predicative, transitive and intransitive, actional and statal, factive and evaluative, etc. *E.g.:*

walk, sail, prepare, shine, blow – can, may, shall, be, become;

take, put, speak, listen, see, give – live, float, stay, ache, ripen, rain;

write, play, strike, boil, receive, ride – exist, sleep, rest, thrive, revel, suffer;

roll, tire, begin, ensnare, build, tremble – consider, approve, mind, desire, hate, incline.

Adjectives are subcategorised into qualitative and relative, of constant feature and temporary feature (the latter are referred to as "statives" and identified by some scholars as a separate part of speech under the heading of "category of state"), factive and evaluative, etc. *E.g.:*

long, red, lovely, noble, comfortable – wooden, rural, daily, subterranean, orthographical;

healthy, sickly, joyful, grievous, wry, blazing – well, ill, glad, sorry, awry, ablaze;

tall, heavy, smooth, mental, native – kind, brave, wonderful, wise, stupid.

The adverb, the numeral, aw

Alongside of the three-criteria principle of dividing the words into grammatical (lexico-grammatical) classes modern linguistics has developed another, narrower principle of word-class identification based on syntactic featuring of words only.

The fact is, that the three-criteria principle faces a special difficulty in determining the part of speech status of such lexemes as have morphological characteristics of notional words, but are essentially distinguished from notional words by their playing the role of grammatical mediators in phrases and sentences. Here belong, for instance, modal verbs together with their equivalents – suppletive fillers, auxiliary verbs, aspective verbs, intensifying adverbs, determiner pronouns. This difficulty, consisting in the intersection of heterogeneous properties in the established word-

classes, can evidently be overcome by recognising only one criterion of the three as decisive.

Questions for Reflection:

1. Can the term "parts of speech" be considered a suitable one?

2. What are the existing approaches to the parts of speech problem?

3. What does the classical approach consist in? What principle served as the basis of classification?

4. What syntactic properties of a part of speech does the functional criterion concerns?

5. What principle was H. Sweet's classification based on?

6. What methods does the structural approach rely on?

7. What principle lay in the basis of Ch. Fries's classification? What were the substitution patterns? How many classes did Ch. Fries single out? How many groups of functional words?

8. What criteria are used by the adherents of the complex approach? What parts of speech are traditionally singled out?

9. What are the merits and demerits of the traditional classification of words into parts of speech?

10. What is the difference between notional classes and function words?

11. What results of the four approaches to the parts of speech problem coincide and what results differ?

Topic 4. General Survey of the Noun and its Categories.

Questions for Discussion:
1. Noun as the central nominative unit of language, its categorial meaning and formal characteristics.
2. The noun as an attribute ("the cannon ball problem").
3. Formal and functional peculiarities of the category of number.
4. The problem of the category of case and various approaches to its study.
5. The meaningful character of the gender category in modern English. Gender oppositions and classes of nouns.
6. The system of article determination in English.

1. Noun as the central nominative lexemic unit of language, its categorial meaning and formal characteristics.
The noun as a part of speech has the categorial meaning of "substance" or "thingness". It follows from this that the noun is the main nominative part of speech, effecting nomination of the fullest value within the framework of the notional division of the lexicon.

Nouns directly name various phenomena of reality and have the strongest nominative force among notional parts of speech: practically every phenomenon can be presented by a noun as an independent referent, or, can be substantivized. Nouns denote things and objects proper (*tree*), abstract notions (*love*), various qualities (*bitterness*), and even actions (*movement*). All these words function in speech in the same way as nouns denoting things proper.

The noun has the power, by way of nomination, to isolate different properties of substances (i.e. direct and oblique qualities, and also actions and states as processual characteristics of

substantive phenomena) and present them as corresponding self-dependent substances. *E.g.:*

Her words were unexpectedly *bitter.* – We were struck by the unexpected *bitterness* of her words. At that time he was *down* in his career, but we knew well that very soon he would be *up* again. – His career had its *ups* and *downs.* [2, p. 49]

Formally, the noun is characterized by a specific set of word-building affixes and word-building models, which unmistakably mark a noun, among them: suffixes of the doer (*worker, naturalist*), suffixes of abstract notions (*laziness, rotation, security, elegance*), special conversion patterns (*to find – a find*), etc. As for word-changing categories, the noun is changed according to the categories of number (*boy-boys*), case (*boy-boy's*), and article determination (*boy, a boy, the boy*). Formally the noun is also characterized by specific combinability with verbs, adjectives and other nouns, introduced either by preposition or by sheer contact. The noun is the only part of speech which can be prepositionally combined with other words, *e.g.: the book of the teacher, to go out of the room, away from home, typical of the noun, etc*.

The most characteristic functions of the noun in a sentence are the function of a subject and an object, since they commonly denote persons and things as components of the situation, *e.g.: The teacher took the book*. Besides, the noun can function as a predicative (part of a compound predicate), *e.g.: He is a teacher*; and as an adverbial modifier, *e.g.: It happened* last summer. The noun in English can also function as an attribute in the following cases: when it is used in the genitive case (*the teacher's book*), when it is used with a preposition (*the book of the teacher*), or in contact groups of two nouns the first of which qualifies the second (*cannon ball, space exploration, sea breeze, the Bush administration, etc.*).

2. The noun as an attribute ("the cannon ball problem").

The last case in the previous paragraph presents a special linguistic problem, which is sometimes referred to as *"the cannon ball problem"*. One aspect of the problem can be formulated in the following way: is it a contact group of two nouns or is the first word in this phrase an adjective homonymous with a noun? The arguments which support the former point of view are as follows: the first word in such contexts does not display any other qualities of the adjective, except for the function (it can't form the degrees of comparison, it cannot be modified by an adverb, etc.); besides, sometimes the first noun in such groups is used in the plural, *e.g.: translations editor*. An additional argument is purely semantic, *cf.: a dangerous corner – a danger signal*; the adjective dangerous describes the thing referred to by the following noun, so it is possible to ask a question *"What kind of ...?"*, while the noun danger tells us what the purpose of the signal is, so the possible question is *"What ... for?"* [14, p. 156]

Another aspect of "the cannon ball problem" is as follows: can the components of such contact groups be considered two separate words, or, as some linguists maintain, is it a kind of a compound word? The arguments which support the former point of view are as follows: a compound word is a stable, ready-made lingual unit, fixed in dictionaries, while most "noun + noun" groups are formed freely in speech; besides, they can be easily transformed into other types of word-combinations (this type of transformation test is known as "the isolability test"), e.g., prepositional word-combinations: *a cannon ball à a ball for cannon*, *space exploration à exploration of space*, etc.; compound words as a rule need additional transformations which explain their "inner form", or etymological motivation, *e.g.: a waterfall – water of a stream, river, etc., falling straight down over rocks*. So, combinations like

space exploration are combinations of two nouns, the first of which is used as an attribute of the other. They may include several noun attributes, especially in scientific style texts, *e.g.: population density factor, space exploration programmes*, etc.

It must be admitted, though, that with some "noun + noun" word-combinations, especially if they become widely used and are fixed in dictionaries, their status becomes mixed, intermediary between a word and a phrase, and this is reflected by their one-word spelling and changes in accentuation; incidentally, the lexeme *cannonball* today is considered a compound word spelled jointly according to the latest dictionaries.

3. Formal and functional peculiarities of the category of number.

The category of number presents a classic example of a binary privative grammatical opposition. The category of number is expressed by the paradigmatic opposition of two forms: the singular and the plural. The strong member in this opposition, the plural, is marked by special formal marks, the main of which is the productive suffix –(e)s which exists in three allomorphs − *[s], [z], [iz], e.g.: cats, boys, roses*. The term "productive" means that new nouns appearing in English form the plural with the help of this suffix. Non-productive means of expressing the plural are either historical relics of ancient number paradigms, or borrowed, e.g.: the suppletive forms with interchange of vowels (*man – men, tooth – teeth*), the archaic suffix *–en (ox – oxen)*, a number of individual singular and plural suffixes of borrowed nouns *(antenna – antennae, stratum – strata, nucleus – nuclei, etc.)*; in addition, a number of nouns have a plural form homonymous with the singular *(sheep, fish, deer, etc.)*. The singular is regularly unmarked (possesses a "zero suffix"). [20, p. 94]

The grammatical meaning of the singular is traditionally defined in a simplified way as "one", and the meaning of the plural – as "many (more than one)". This is true for the bulk of the nouns, namely those denoting simple countable objects (*table – tables*). But the noun in the singular can denote not only "one discrete separate object", but also substances (*water*), abstract notions (*love*), units of measure (*hour*) and other referents. The same applies to the meaning of the plural: plural forms do not always denote "more than one object", but express some other meanings, such as feelings (*horrors of war*), sorts of substances (*wines*), picturesqueness (*sands, waters*), etc.

Different semantic types of the singular and the plural, some of which were shown above, are dependent on the lexico-semantic differences between individual nouns, namely, the characteristics of their "quantitative structure". For countable nouns the category of number is a *variable feature category*, or *relative*, since countable English nouns have both singular and plural correlative forms (table – tables). Uncountable nouns can be used either only in the singular or only in the plural; for them the category of number is *absolute*, or a *constant feature category*. The two groups of uncountable nouns are respectively defined as *singularia tantum*, or, *absolute singular nouns* and *pluralia tantum, absolute plural nouns*.

The absolute singular nouns usually denote the following referents: abstract notions – *love, hate, despair*, etc.; names of substances and materials – *snow, wine, sugar*, etc.; branches of professional activity – *politics, linguistics, mathematics*; some collective objects – *fruit, machinery, foliage*, etc.

The absolute plural nouns usually denote the following: objects consisting of two halves – *scissors, trousers, spectacles*, etc.; some diseases and abnormal states – *mumps, measles, creeps, hysterics*, etc.; indefinite plurality, collective referents – *earnings,*

police, cattle, etc. The nouns belonging to the pluralia tantum group are used with verbs in the plural; they cannot be combined with numerals, and their quantity is rendered by special lexical quantifiers a pair of, a case of, etc., *e.g.: a pair of trousers, several cases of measles*, etc.

4. The problem of the category of case and various approaches to its study.

The case is the morphological category of the noun manifested in the forms of noun declension and showing the relations of the nounal referent to other objects and phenomena.

The category of case in English constitutes a linguistic problem. Linguists argue, first, whether the category of case really exists in modern English, and, second, if it does exist, how many case forms of the noun can be distinguished in English. The main disagreements concern the grammatical status of "noun + an apostrophe + –s" form (*Ted's book, the chairman's decision*).

The following four approaches of different scholars, can be distinguished in the analysis of this problem.

The approach which can be defined as **"the theory of positional cases"** was developed by J. C. Nesfield, M. Deutchbein, M. Bryant and other linguists, mainly in English-speaking countries [19]. They follow the patterns of classical Latin grammar, distinguishing nominative, genitive, dative, accusative and vocative cases in English. The cases are differentiated by the functional position of the noun in the sentence, e.g.: the nominative case corresponds with the subject, the accusative case with the direct object, the dative case with indirect object, and the vocative case with the address. Thus, "the theory of positional cases" presents an obvious confusion of the formal, morphological characteristics of the noun and its functional, syntactic features.

The approach which can be defined as **"the theory of prepositional cases"** supplements the previous one and follows the same route of Latin-oriented, old school grammar traditions. The linguists who formulated it, G. Curme among them [26], treat the combinations of nouns with prepositions as specific analytical case forms, e.g.: the dative case is expressed by nouns with the prepositions 'to' and 'for', the genitive case by nouns with the preposition 'of', the instrumental case by nouns with the preposition 'with', *e.g.: for the girl, of the girl, with a key*. They see the system of cases in English as comprising the regular inflectional case (the genitive), "positional cases", and "prepositional cases".

The approach which can be defined as **"the theory of limited case"** is the most widely accepted theory of case in English today. It was formulated by linguists H. Sweet [23], O. Jespersen [18] and further developed by Russian linguists A. Smirnitsky [12], L. Barchudarov [1] and others. It is based on the oppositional presentation of the category; the category of case is expressed by the opposition of two forms: the first form, "*the genitive case*", is the strong, featured member of the opposition, marked by the postpositional element '–s' after an apostrophe in the singular and just an apostrophe in the plural, *e.g.: the girl's books, the girls' books*; the second, unfeatured form is the weak member of the opposition and is usually referred to as "*the common case*" ("*non-genitive*"). The category of case is realized in full in animate nouns and restrictedly in inanimate nouns in English, hence the name – "the theory of limited case".

The approach which can be defined as "**the theory of the possessive postposition**", or "**the theory of no case**" states that the category of case was completely lost by the noun in the course of its historical development. The proponents of this theory (G. N. Vorontsova, A. M. Mukhin [20, p. 164]) maintain that the inflectional genitive case form is actually a combination of the

noun with a postposition denoting possession. The main arguments to support this point of view are as follows: first, the postpositional element 's is not only used with words, but also with word-combinations and sentences, *e.g.: his daughter Mary's arrival, the man I saw yesterday's face*; it may be used with no noun at all, but with a pronoun, *e.g.: somebody else's car*; second, the same meaning of possession is rendered by prepositional of-phrases, *e.g.: this man's daughter – the daughter of this man*. The followers of this approach conclude that –s is no longer an inflection, but a particle-like postpositional word, so, "noun +–'s" is not a morphological form of the noun, but a syntactical construction.
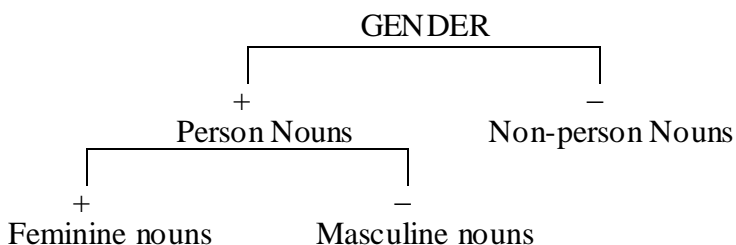
5. The meaningful character of the gender category in modern English. Gender oppositions and classes of nouns.

The category of gender in English is a highly controversial subject in grammar. The majority of linguists stick to the opinion that the category of gender existed only in Old English. They maintain that in modern English, the biological division of masculine and feminine genders is rendered only by lexical means: special words and lexical affixes, *e.g.: man – woman, tiger – tigress, he-goat – she-goat, male nurse*, etc.

In the English language gender is a meaningful category for the whole class of the nouns, because it reflects the real gender attributes (or their absence/ irrelevance) of the referent denoted. It is realized through obligatory correspondence of every noun with the 3rd person singular pronouns – he, she, or it: man – he, woman – she, tree, dog – it. For example: *A woman was standing on the platform. She was wearing a hat. It was decorated with ribbons and flowers…* Personal pronouns are grammatical gender classifiers in English.

The category of gender is formed by two oppositions organized hierarchically. The first opposition is general and

opposes *human*, or *person nouns*, distinguishing masculine and feminine gender (man – he, woman – she) and all the other, *non-human*, *non-person nouns*, belonging to the neuter gender (tree, dog – it). The second opposition is formed by the human nouns only: on the lower level of the opposition the nouns of *masculine gender* and of *feminine gender* are opposed.

GENDER

```
                        GENDER
              ┌────────────────────────────┐
              +                            –
         Person Nouns              Non-person Nouns
     ┌──────────────────┐
     +                  –
Feminine nouns     Masculine nouns
```

Gender is a constant feature category: it is expressed not through variable forms of words, but through nounal classification; each noun belongs to only one of the three genders. In addition, there is a group of nouns in English which can denote either a female or a male in different contexts; these nouns can be substituted by either 'he' or 'she', *e.g.: president, professor, friend*, etc. They constitute a separate group of nouns – *the common gender nouns*.

There are no formal marks to distinguish the strong and the weak members in either of the gender oppositions. They can be distinguished semantically: nouns of the neuter gender in the upper level of the opposition is more abstract compared to masculine and feminine gender nouns; they are the weak member of the opposition and are naturally used in the position of neutralization, *e.g.: The girl was a sweet little <u>thing</u>.* On the lower level of the opposition, masculine gender nouns are the weak member of the opposition and can be used to denote all human beings irrespective of sex, *e.g.: <u>Man</u> must change in the changing*

world. When there is no contextual need to specify the sex of the referent, common gender nouns are also neutrally substituted by the masculine pronoun, *e.g.: Every <u>student</u> must do <u>his</u> best*.

6. The system of article determination in English.

The category of article determination shows the relations of the referent of the noun to the other referents of the same class. The article is a determiner, but unlike other determiners (the lexical means: this, that, some, any, very, etc.), it's so general, that it has become a grammatical means of determination in modern English. When no lexical determiner is used, a noun is modified either by a definite article 'the', or an indefinite one 'a/an', or by the absence of such, defined as a "zero article".

The definite article expresses the *identification* or *individualization* of the referent of the noun. The object that the noun denotes is taken as concrete and individual. The identificational meaning of the definite article can be demonstrated in cases, when 'the' is substituted by the demonstrative lexical determiners, *e.g.: the man à this man, the very man (I saw yesterday)*, etc.

The indefinite article expresses *classification*, or *relative*, *classifying generalization* of the referent, which means that this article refers the object denoted to a certain class. The classifying meaning of the indefinite article can be explicitly demonstrated by substitution with classifying words and phrases, *e.g.: a man à some man, a certain man, some kind of a man*, etc.

The zero article expresses *absolute generalization*, *abstraction* of the referent denoted by the noun. This meaning can be demonstrated by the insertion test, where the generalizing expressions "in general, in the abstract" are inserted into the construction to explicitly show the abstraction, *e.g.: Home should*

be a safe and comfortable place. – Home (in the abstract, in general) should be a safe and comfortable place.

Paradigmatically, the category of article determination is formed by two oppositions organized hierarchically: on the upper level, the definite article, the strong member of the opposition, is opposed to the indefinite article and the meaningful absence of it, both of which express generalization and make the weak member of the opposition; on the lower level, the indefinite article and the meaningful absence of the article with uncountable nouns and nouns in the plural (ø1) expressing relative generalization (classification), which make the strong member of the opposition, are opposed to the zero article denoting absolute generalization (abstraction) (ø2) – the weak member of the opposition.

ARTICLE DETERMINATION

+	−
Identification	Non-identification
the	(Generalization)

+	−
Relative Generalization	Absolute Generalization
(Classification)	(Abstraction)
a(n)ø1	*ø2*
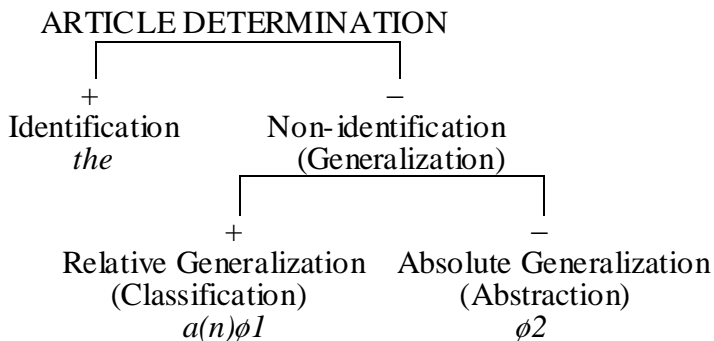
There are also certain fixed contexts in which the use of articles has no semantic ground; for example, with the names of newspapers the definite article is used, *e.g.: the Washington Post, the Sun*, while with the names of magazines no article is used, *e.g.: Cosmopolitan*. Most geographic names are used without articles, *e.g.: Moscow, Russia,* but *the Hague*; the names of mountains are used without articles, *e.g.: Mount Everest*, while mountain chains are given with the definite articles, *e.g.: the Andes*. Some of these cases are treated as lexicalized nominations

(the Hague), or traditional usage (the Washington Post, but Cosmopolitan), others are described as specific rules, codifying the use of articles in concrete conditions, mainly in the course of practical grammar with no attempts at semantic explanation.

The problem of article determination has given rise to much controversy; there is much dispute about the status of the article itself and its combination with the noun. It seems more plausible to interpret the article in terms of the general linguistic field approach as a lingual unit of intermediary status between the word and the morpheme, as a special type of grammatical auxiliary, and its combination with the noun as an intermediary phenomenon between the word and the word-combination.

Questions for Reflection:
1. What is the position of nouns in the system of parts of speech?
2. Comment on various interpretations of number distinctions of the English noun.
3. What meanings can the singular form express? What meanings can the plural form express?
4. Describe the existing approaches to the case system of the English noun.
5. What is the essence of the category of case in terms of oppositions?
6. What are the peculiarities of the genitive case in English?
7. Give comments on the use of the group-genitive and double genitive in Modern English.
8. Does the category of gender exist in Modern English? What ways of expressing gender distinctions exist in English?
9. What are the peculiarities of the linguistic status of English articles?

Topic 5. The Verb as a Part of Speech.

Questions for Discussion:

1. The verb as a notional part of speech denoting process. Its formal and functional properties.

2. The system of verbs' subclasses.

3. The category of finitude: finite and non-finite forms of the verb (finites and verbids).

4. Verbal categories of number, person and their reflective nature.

5. The peculiarities of voice as a verbal category. The opposition of active and passive forms of the verb.

1. The verb as a notional part of speech denoting process. It's formal and functional properties.

The verb as a notional part of speech has the categorial meaning of *dynamic process*, or *process developing in time*, including not only actions as such (*to work, to build*), but also states, forms of existence (*to be, to become, to lie*), various types of attitude, feelings (*to love, to appreciate*), etc.

Formally, the verb is characterized by a set of specific word-building affixes, *e.g.: to activate, to widen, to classify, to synchronize, to overestimate, to reread*, etc.; there are some other means of building verbs, among them sound-replacive and stress-shifting models, *e.g.: blood – to bleed, □ import – to im□ port.* There is a peculiar means of rendering the meaning of the process, which occupies an intermediary position between the word and the word-combination: the so-called "phrasal verbs", consisting of a verb and a postpositional element. Some phrasal verbs are closer to the word, because their meaning cannot be deduced from the meaning of the verb or the meaning of the postposition separately, *e.g.: to give up, to give in*, etc.; others are semantically closer to

the word-combination, *e.g.: to stand up, to sit down*, etc. A separate group of phrasal verbs is made by combinations of broad meaning verbs to have, to give, to take and nouns, *e.g.: to give a look, to have rest, to have a bite*, etc. The processual semantics of the verb determines its combinability with nouns denoting either the subject or the object of the action, and its combinability with adverbs denoting the quality of the process. In certain contexts, some verbs can be combined with adjectives (in compound nominal predicates) and other verbs.

As for **semantic features**, the verb possesses the grammatical meaning of *verbiality* – the ability to denote a process developing in time. This meaning is inherent not only in the verbs denoting processes, but also in those denoting states, forms of existence, evaluations, etc.

Speaking about verb's **morphological features**, it possesses the following grammatical categories: *tense, aspect, voice, mood, person, number, finitude* and *phase*. The grammatical categories of the English verb are expressed in synthetical and analytical forms. The formative elements expressing these categories are grammatical affixes, inner inflexion and function words. Some categories have only synthetical forms (person, number), others – only analytical (voice). There are also categories expressed by both synthetical and analytical forms (mood, tense, aspect).

The most universal **syntactic feature** of verbs is their ability to be modified by adverbs. The second important syntactic criterion is the ability of the verb to perform the syntactic function of the predicate. However, this criterion is not absolute because only finite forms can perform this function while non-finite forms can be used in any function but predicate.

2. The system of verbs' subclasses.

The complexity of the verb is also manifested in the intricate system of its grammatically relevant subclasses.

According to their semantic (nominative) value all the verbs fall into two big subclasses: **the subclass of notional verbs** and **the subclass of functional and semi-functional verbs**. Notional verbs have full nominative value and are independent in the expression of the process, *e.g.: to work, to build, to lie*, etc. Functional and semi-functional verbs make a group of verbs of partial nominative value. They are dependent on other words, but through their forms the predicative semantics of the sentence is expressed (they function as predicators).

On the basis of subject-process relations the notional verbs are subdivided into *actional* and *statal* verbs. Actional verbs denote the actions performed by the subject as an active doer, *e.g.: to go, to make,* etc.; statal verbs denote various states of the subject or present it as the recipient of a reality, *e.g.: to love, to be, to worry*.

Another subdivision of notional verbs is based on their aspective meaning, which exposes the inner character of the process denoted. According to the mode of realization, the process may be *instantaneous (momentary), (e.g.: to drop, to click), durative (continual), repeated, starting, completed, uncompleted, (e.g.: to begin, to continue)*.

All these minor subdivisions are generalized into two big groups: the so-called *limitive verbs* and *unlimitive verbs*. Limitive verbs present a process as potentially limited, beyond which the process denoted by the verb is stopped or ceases to exist, *e.g.: to come, to sit down*, etc. Unlimitive verbs present the process as potentially not limited by any border point, *e.g.: to go, to sit, to carry*, etc.

The next subdivision of the notional verbs is based on their combinability features, or their valency. On this basis, verbs are

divided into *transitive* and *intransitive*: transitive verbs denote an action directed toward a certain object; in a sentence they are obligatorily used with a direct object. Constructions with transitive verbs are easily transformed from active into passive, *e.g.: He wrote a letter. – The letter was written by him.*

Functional and semi-functional verbs are also subdivided into a number of groups.

Auxiliary functional verbs are used to build the analytical grammatical forms of notional verbs, *e.g.: have done, was lost.*

Link verbs connect the nominative part of the predicate with the subject, *e.g.: He was pale.*

Modal verbs are predicators denoting various subject attitudes to the action, for example, obligation, ability, permission, advisability, etc.: can, must, may, etc.

The subdivision of verbs into notional and (semi-) functional is grammatically relevant since the verbs of the two subclasses perform different syntactic functions in the sentence: notional verbs function as predicates, semi-functional and functional verbs as parts of predicates (predicators).

In conclusion, it should be stressed once again that many verbs in English in different contexts migrate easily from one group to another, and the boundaries between the subclasses are less rigid than in any other language.

3. The category of finitude: finite and non-finite forms of the verb (finites and verbids).

The verb is usually characterized as the most complex part of speech, because it has more word-changing categories than any other part of speech. Besides, each verb has a specific set of **non-finite forms** (the infinitive, the gerund, participles I and II), otherwise called "*verbals*", or "*verbids*", opposed to the **finite forms**, otherwise called

"finites"; their opposition is treated as "the category of finitude" [26, p. 20].

The grammatical meaning, the content of this category is the expression of verbal predication: the finite forms of the verb render *full (primary, complete, genuine) predication*; the non-finite forms render *semi-predication*, or *secondary (potential) predication*. The formal differential feature is constituted by the expression of verbal time and mood, which underlie the predicative function: having no immediate means of expressing time-mood categorial semantics, the verbids are the weak member of the opposition.

The Infinitive is the most generalized, the most abstract form of the verb, serving as the verbal name of a process; it is used as the derivation base for all the other verbal forms. That is why the infinitive is traditionally used as the head word for the lexicographic entry of the verb in dictionaries.

The infinitive combines verbal features with features of the noun; it is a phenomenon of hybrid processual-substantive nature, intermediary between the verb and the noun. It has voice and aspect forms, *e.g.: to write, to be writing, to have written, to be written, to have been written*. The infinitive performs all the functions characteristic of the noun – that of a subject, *e.g.: To write a letter was the main thing he had planned for the day*; of a predicative, *e.g.: The main thing he had planned for the day was to write a letter*; of an object, *e.g.: He wanted to write a letter to her*; of an attribute, *e.g.: It was the main thing to d*o; of an adverbial modifier, *e.g.: He stood on a chair in order to reach for the top shelf*. In these functions the infinitive displays substantive combinability with finite verbs.

The Gerund is another verbid that serves as the verbal name of a process and combines verbal features with those of a noun; the gerund, like the infinitive, can be characterized as a

phenomenon of hybrid processual-substantive nature, intermediary between the verb and the noun. It is even closer to the noun, because besides performing the substantive functions in a sentence like the infinitive, it can also be modified by an attribute and can be used with a preposition, which the infinitive can't do, *e.g.: Thank you for listening to me; Your careful listening to me is very much appreciated.* The functions of the gerund in the sentence are as follows – that of a subject, *e.g.: It's no use crying over spilt milk*; of a predicative, *e.g.: The only remedy for such headache is going to bed*; of an object, *e.g.: I love reading*; of an attribute, *e.g.: He had a gift of listening*; of an adverbial modifier, *e.g.: On entering the house I said "hello".* In these functions the gerund displays nounal combinability with verbs, adjectives, and nouns, especially in cases of prepositional connections. As for the verbal features of the gerund, its meaning is basically processual, which is evident when the gerund is compared with the nouns, *cf.: Thank you for helping me. – Thank you for your help*; in addition, the gerund distinguishes some aspect and voice forms, *e.g.: writing, being written, having written, having been written.*

   Participle I (present participle) is fully homonymous with the gerund: it is also an 'ing-form'. But its semantics is different: it denotes processual quality, combining verbal features with such of the adjective and the adverb; participle I can be characterized as a phenomenon of processual-qualifying nature. The <u>verb-type</u> combinability of participle I is revealed in its combinations with nouns denoting the subject and the object of the action, *e.g.: her entering the room*, with modifying adverbs and with auxiliary verbs in the analytical forms of the verb; the <u>adjective-type</u> combinability of participle I is manifested in its combinations with modified nouns and adverbs of degree, *e.g.: an extremely maddening presence*; the <u>adverb-type</u> combinability

of the participle is revealed in its combinations with modified verbs, *e.g.: to speak stuttering at every word*. In its free use, participle I can function as a predicative, *e.g.: Her presence is extremely maddening to me*; as an attribute, *e.g.: The fence surrounding the garden was newly painted*; and as an adverbial modifier, *e.g.: While waiting he whistled*.

Participle II, like participle I, denotes processual quality and can be characterized as a phenomenon of hybrid processual-qualifying nature. It has only one form, traditionally treated as the verbal "third form", used to build the analytical forms of the passive and the perfect of finites, *e.g.: is taken; has taken*. The categorial meanings of the perfect and the passive are implicitly conveyed by participle II in its free use, for example, when it functions as a predicative or an attribute, *e.g.: He answered through a firmly locked door* (participle II as an attribute); *The room was big and brightly lit* (participle II as a predicative). The functioning of participle II is often seen as adverbial in cases like the following: *When asked directly about the purpose of her visit she answered vaguely*. But such constructions present cases of syntactic compression rather than an independent participle II used adverbially, *e.g.: When asked directly ß When she was asked directly…* Thus, participle II can be characterized as a verbid combining verbal features (processual semantics and combinability) with the features of the adjective.

4. Verbal categories of number, person and their reflective nature.

Traditionally, the category of number is treated as the correlation of the plural and the singular, and the category of person as the correlation of three deictic functions, reflecting the relations of the referents to the participants of speech communication: the first person – the speaker, the second person –

the person spoken to, and the third person – the person or thing spoken about. But in the system of the verb in English these two categories are so closely interconnected, both semantically and formally, that they are often referred to as one single category: the category of person and number.

In modern English all verbs can be divided according to the expression of this category into three groups. *Modal verbs* distinguish no person or number forms at all. *The verb 'to be'*, on the contrary, has preserved more person-number forms than any other verb in modern English, *e.g.: I am; we are; you are; he/she/it is; they are*; in the past tense the verb to be distinguishes two number forms in the first person and the third person: *I, he/she/it was* (sing.) – *we, they were* (pl.); in the second person the form were is used in the singular and in the plural. *The bulk of the verbs* in English have a distinctive form only for the third person singular of the present tense indicative mood. Thus, the category of person and number in modern English is fragmental and asymmetrical, realized in the present tense indicative mood by the opposition of two forms: the strong, marked member in this opposition is the third person singular (*speaks*) and the weak member embraces all the other person and number forms, so, it can be called "a common form" (*speak*).

The system of person and number forms of the verb in English plays an important role in contexts in which the immediate forms of the noun don't distinguish the category of number, *e.g.: singularia tantum* nouns or *pluralia tantum* nouns, or nouns modified by numerical attributes, or collective nouns, *cf.: The family was gathered round the table – The family were gathered round the table; Ten dollars is a huge sum of money for me. – There are ten dollars in my pocket.* In these cases, traditionally described in terms of "notional concord" or "agreement in sense", the form of the verb reflects not the

categorial form of the subject morphemically expressed, but the actual personal-numerical interpretation of the referent denoted.

5. The peculiarities of voice as a verbal category. The opposition of active and passive forms of the verb.

The verbal category of voice shows *the direction of the process* as regards the participants of the situation reflected in the syntactic structure of the sentence. Voice is a very specific verbal category: first, it does not reflect the actual properties of the process denoted, but the speaker's appraisal of it; the speaker chooses which of the participants in the situation – *the agent (the subject, the doer of the action)* or *the patient (the object, the receiver of the action)* – should be presented as the subject of the syntactic construction. Second, though it is expressed through the morphological forms of the verb, voice is closely connected with the structural organization of the syntactic construction: the use of passive or active forms of the verb involves the use of suitable syntactic construction.

The category of voice is expressed by the opposition of the passive and active forms of the verb; the active form of the verb is the unmarked, weak member of the opposition, and the passive is the strong member marked by the combination of the auxiliary verb to be and participle II of the notional verb. It denotes the action received or a state experienced by the referent of the subject; in other words, the syntactic subject of the sentence denotes the patient of the action in the situation described, while the syntactic object, if any, denotes the doer of the action, *e.g.: The cup was broken by his daughter*. Passive constructions are used when the agent is unknown or irrelevant, *e.g.: He was killed during the war*.

Besides passive and active constructions, there are also the so-called *"medial" voice* types, whose status is problematic:

semantically, they are neither strictly passive nor active, though the verb used is formally active. There are three "medial" voice types distinguished in English: "*reflexive*", "*reciprocal*", and "*middle*". In reflexive constructions the subject of the action is the object of the action at the same time, *e.g.: He dressed quickly*. This meaning can be rendered explicitly by the reflexive "-self" pronouns, *e.g.: He dressed himself*. In reciprocal constructions the subject of the action is its object at the same time, *e.g.: They quarreled*. This meaning can be rendered explicitly with the help of the reciprocal pronouns one another, each other, with one another, *e.g.: They quarreled with each other*. In middle constructions the subject combined with the otherwise transitive verb is neither the doer of the action nor its immediate object, the action is as if of its own accord, *e.g.: The door opened; The concert began*.

Questions for Reflection:
1. Characterize the properties of the verb as a part of speech.
2. What existing classifications of verbs do you know?
3. What significative subclasses are all the verbs divided into?
4. Comment on the main peculiarities of the finite and non-finite forms of the verb.
5. What is the difference between the marked and unmarked infinitive?
6. What features characterize the gerund? What makes it different from the infinitive?
7. What is specific to the categories of person and number in English?
8. What makes the expression of voice distinctions in English specific?
9. How many voices are there in Modern English?
10. Comment on the connection between the problem of voice and transitivity/intransitivity of verbs.

Topic 6. General Characteristics of Syntax and Various Syntactic Theories.

Questions for Discussion:
1. The subject matter of syntax.
2. Major syntactic notions (syntactic units, form and meaning, function, position and relations).
3. Kinds of syntactic theories.

1. The subject matter of syntax.

The grammatical structure of language comprises two major parts – morphology and syntax. The two areas are obviously interdependent and together they constitute the study of grammar.

Morphology deals with paradigmatic and syntagmatic properties of morphological units – morphemes and words. It is concerned with the internal structure of words and their relationship to other words and word forms within the paradigm. It studies morphological categories and their realization.

Syntax, on the other hand, deals with the way words are combined. It is concerned with the external functions of words and their relationship to other words within the linearly ordered units – word-groups, sentences and texts. Syntax studies the way in which the units and their meanings are combined. It also deals with peculiarities of syntactic units, their behaviour in different contexts.

But, in fact, the definition of the subject matter of syntax is not an easy task. There are three basic approaches to the problem:

a) a word-centric approach to syntax. Within this approach the word is recognized the main language unit and the syntactical units – word-groups and sentences are regarded as

mere syntagmatics of words. The disadvantage of this approach lies in the fact that essential properties of syntactic units are neglected. Thus within this approach it is impossible to analyze the sentence not as a mere structure, but as a communicative unit as well as the word-group. It is not quite reasonable to reduce syntactic theory to the studying of syntagmatics of words.

b) A sentence-centric approach. It is based on the assumption that the main language unit is the sentence and syntax should be qualified as the theory of the sentence. This approach cannot be taken as a fully satisfactory, because word-groups and words are analyzed only as parts of the sentence and their essential properties are ignored.

c) A comprehensive approach to the subject matter of syntax. It states that the domain of syntax is the study of all syntactic level units in the system of their paradigmatic and syntagmatic properties. Until recently it was considered that syntax is constituted by two language units: word-groups, which form up **minor syntax** and the sentence, which forms up **major syntax**.

Sentence is not the highest language unit, which crowns the hierarchy of language structure because the sentence itself cannot serve the purpose of communication. Only the combination of semantically connected sentences forms a language unit, which serves the purpose of communication. This highest communicative unit is called the text. Within the text sentence functions as a minimal communicative unit. Thus, it is reasonable to say that the theory of syntax consists of 3 basic parts:

- the theory of the word-group – minor syntax;
- the theory of the sentence – major syntax;
- the theory of the text – higher/super-syntax.

2. Major syntactic notions (syntactic units, form and meaning, function, position and relations).

The syntactic language level can be described with the help of special linguistic terms and notions: *syntactic unit, syntactic form, syntactic meaning, syntactic function, syntactic position, and syntactic relations.*

Syntactic unit is always a combination that has at least two constituents. The basic syntactic units are a word-group, a clause, a sentence, and a text. Their main features are:

a) they are hierarchical units – the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level;

b) as all language units the syntactic units are of two-fold nature:

$$\text{Syntactic unit} = \frac{\text{content side}}{\text{expression side}} = \frac{\text{syntactic meaning}}{\text{syntactic form}}$$

c) they are of communicative and non-communicative nature – word-groups and clauses are of non-communicative nature while sentences and texts are of communicative nature.

Syntactic meaning is the way in which separate word meanings are combined to produce meaningful word-groups and sentences.

Green ideas sleep furiously. This sentence is quite correct grammatically. However it makes no sense as it lacks syntactic meaning.

Syntactic form may be described as the distributional formula of the unit (pattern). *John hits the ball* – N1 + V + N2.

Syntactic function is the function of a unit on the basis of which it is included to a larger unit: in the word-group a smart student the word 'smart' is in subordinate attributive relations to the head element. In traditional terms it is used to denote syntactic function of a unit within the sentence (subject, predicate, etc.).

Syntactic position is the position of an element. The order of constituents in syntactic units is of principal importance in analytical languages. The syntactic position of an element may determine its relationship with the other elements of the same unit: his broad back, a back district, to go back, to back sm.

Syntactic relations are syntagmatic relations observed between syntactic units. They can be of three types – *coordination, subordination and predication*.

Coordination (SR1) – syntagmatic relations of independence. SR1 can be observed on the phrase, sentence and text levels. Coordination may be symmetric and asymmetric. Symmetric coordination is characterized by complete interchangeability of its elements – *pens and pencils*. Asymmetric coordination occurs when the position of elements is fixed: *ladies and gentlemen*. Forms of connection within SR1 may be copulative (*you and me*), disjunctive (*you or me*), adversative (*strict but just*) and causative-consecutive (*sentence and text level only*).

Subordination (SR2) – syntagmatic relations of dependence. SR2 are established between the constituents of different linguistic rank. They are observed on the phrase and sentence level. Subordination may be of three different kinds – adverbial (*to speak slowly*), objective (*to see a house*) and attributive (*a beautiful flower*). Forms of subordination may also be different – agreement (*this book – these books*), government (*help us*), adjournment (the use of modifying particles *just, only, even*, etc.) and enclosure (the use of modal words and their equivalents *really, after all*, etc.).

Predication (SR3) – syntagmatic relations of interdependence. Predication may be of two kinds – *primary* (sentence level) and *secondary* (phrase level). Primary predication is observed between the subject and the predicate of the sentence while secondary predication is observed between non-finite forms

of the verb and nominal elements within the sentence. Secondary predication serves the basis for gerundial, infinitive and participial word-groups (predicative complexes). [2, p. 187]

3. Kinds of syntactic theories.

Transformational-Generative Grammar. The Transformational grammar was first suggested by American scholar Zelling Harris as a method of analyzing sentences and was later elaborated by another American scholar Noam Chomsky as a synthetic method of 'generating' (constructing) sentences [17, p. 165]. The main point of the Transformational-Generative Grammar is that the endless variety of sentences in a language can be reduced to a finite number of kernels by means of transformations. These kernels serve the basis for generating sentences by means of syntactic processes. Different language analysts recognize the existence of different number of kernels (from 3 to 39). The following 6 kernels are commonly associated with the English language:

(1) NV – *John sings*.
(2) NVAdj. – *John is happy*.
(3) NVN – *John is a man*.
(4) NVN – *John hit the man*.
(5) NVNN – *John gave the man a book*.
(6) NVPrep.N – *The book is on the table*.

It should be noted that (3) differs from (4) because the former admits no passive transformation.

Transformational method proves useful for analysing sentences from the point of their deep structure:
Flying planes can be dangerous.
This sentence is ambiguous, two senses can be distinguished: a) the action of flying planes can be dangerous;

b) the planes that fly can be dangerous. Therefore it can be reduced to the following kernels:

a) Planes can be dangerous   b) Planes can be dangerous
X (people) fly planes   X Planes fly

Constructional Syntax. Constructional analysis of syntactic units was initiated by Prof. G. Pocheptsov in his book („Конструктивный анализ структуры предложения") published in Kyiv in 1971. This analysis deals with the constructional significance/insignificance of a part of the sentence for the whole syntactic unit. The theory is based on the obligatory or optional environment of syntactic elements. For example, the element him in the sentence *I saw him there yesterday* is constructionally significant because it is impossible to omit it. At the same time the elements there and yesterday are constructionally insignificant – they can be omitted without destroying the whole structure.

Communicative Syntax. It is primarily concerned with the analysis of utterances from the point of their communicative value and informative structure. It deals with the actual division of the utterance – the theme and rheme analysis (see Lecture 7). Both the theme and the rheme constitute the informative structure of utterances. The theme is something that is known while the rheme represents some new information. Depending on the contextual informative value any element can act as the theme or the rheme:

Who is at home? – John is at home. Where is John? – John is at home.

Pragmatic approach to the study of syntactic units can briefly be described as the study of the way language is used in particular contexts to achieve particular goals. **Speech Act Theory** was first introduced by John Austin. The notion of a speech act presupposes that an utterance can be said with different

intentions or purposes and therefore can influence the speaker and situation in different ways:

	I just state the fact;
	I want you to do smth. about it (close the window);
.	
It's cold here":	I'm threatening you;
	I'm seeking for an excuse for not doing smth.;
	I want you to feel guilty of it.
	Etc.

Accordingly, we can distinguish different speech acts.

Of special interest here is the problem of indirect speech acts: *Are you leaving already?* In our everyday activities we use indirect speech acts because it is the best way to influence people, to get what we want and to be polite at the same time.

Textlinguistics studies the text as a syntactic unit, its main features and peculiarities, different ways of its analysis.

Discourse analysis focuses on the study of language use with reference to the social and psychological factors that influence communication.

Questions for Reflection:
1. What does syntax deal with?
2. What are the basic approaches to the problem of syntax definition?
3. What basic syntactic units do you know?
4. How can you describe the main syntactic notions (meaning, form, function, position)?
5. What relations between words are called syntactic?
6. What are the types of syntactical relations according to the form of the constituents?
7. What kind of syntactic analysis theory do you consider the most adequate?

**Topic 7. The Theory of the Word Group and the Sentence.
Actual Division of the Sentence.**

Questions for Discussion:
1. The phrase as a polynominatlve lingual unit. The problem of definition.
2. Structural types of phrases. Phrase vs. Sentence.
3. The definition and characteristic features of the sentence.
4. Actual division of the sentence.

1. The phrase as a polynominatlve lingual unit. The problem of definition.
The main object of study in syntax is the communicative unit of the language, the sentence. The phrase is the syntactic unit used as a notional part of a sentence. As a level-forming unit, it is characterized by some common and some differential features with the unit of the lower level, the word, and the unit of the upper level, the sentence. Like the word, the phrase is a nominative unit, but it provides a complex nomination of the referent, a polynomination consisting of several (at least two) nominative components, presenting the referent as a complicated phenomenon, *e.g.: a girl – a beautiful girl; a decision – his unexpected decision*; etc. Moreover, the regular free phrase does not enter speech as a ready-made unit like the word; it is freely formed in speech, like the sentence according to a certain grammatical pattern. As for the fixed word-combinations, idioms, they are closer to the word in the type of nomination: they are ready-made units fixed in dictionaries and studied mainly by lexicology.

The definition of the phrase is rather a controversial issue. In Russian linguistics, the narrow approach, which was put forward by V. V. Vinogradov, traditionally prevails: only a

combination of two notional words, one of which dominates the other, is considered a word-combination. A much broader approach was proposed by Leonard Bloomfield and it is shared by many modern linguists [15, p. 212]. One of the leading specialists in this field, V. V. Burlakova, defines *a word-combination as any syntactically organized group of syntagmatically connected words* [7, p. 134]; this includes combinations of functional and notional words, and predicative and coordinative combinations of words. Critical revision of these two approaches is possible on the basis of the above given description of the phrase (the phraseme) as a separate lingual unit.

2. Structural types of phrases. Phrase vs. Sentence.

Defining the phrase as a polynominative lingual unit helps reveal the status of **notional phrases**, semantically independent ("autosemantic") combinations of notional words, as the basic type of phrasemes. Besides notional phrases, two other structural types of syntagmatic groupings of words can be distinguished, which can be defined as phrases or word-combinations only in form: **formative phrases** and **functional phrases**. The formative phrase is a combination of a notional word with a functional word, which is contextually dependent and functionally similar to separate notional words used in various grammatical forms, *e.g.: of Peter (= Peter's)*; *in a moment, without doubt*, etc. Functional phrases are combinations of functional words similar to regular functional words, *e.g.: apart from, as soon as, with reference to, must be able*, etc.

The basic difference between the phrase and the sentence is as follows: the phrase cannot express full predication, even if it denotes a situation; this becomes obvious in their mutual transformations, for example, in the so-called phrasalization, or nominalization of the sentence, *e.g.: They considered the*

problem. – their consideration of the problem; *for them to consider the problem; their considering of the problem*. Thus, the phrase enters speech only as a constituent of a sentence, as contrasted with the word. The grammatical description of the phrase is seen as a separate part of syntax, the syntax of the phrase; it is sometimes called "minor syntax", in distinction to "major syntax", studying the sentence and its textual connections.

Besides the classification of word groupings on the basis of the major syntagmatic connections outlined above, there are further subdivisions and generalizations, and other approaches possible in the description of the phrase. The traditional classification of phrases is based on the part-of-speech characteristics of their constituents. There are **noun phrases** (NP), *e.g.: a beautiful girl; men, women and children*; **verbal phrases** (VP), *e.g.: went home; came and went*; **adjective phrases** (AP), *e.g.: quite unexpected; nice and quiet*; **adverbial phrases** (DP), *e.g.: quite unexpectedly*. On the base of kernel-adjunct relations, subordinative phrases can be divided into those with *objective connections* (*direct objective and indirect objective*) and *qualifying connections* (*attributive and adverbial*), *e.g.: to see a child* (direct objective); *put on the table* (indirect objective); *a beautiful girl* (attributive); *came soon* (adverbial). On the base of the position of the adjunct in relation to the kernel, subordinative phrases are characterized as *regressive* or *progressive*: in regressive phrases, the adjunct precedes the kernel, *e.g.: a beautiful girl*; in progressive phrases, the adjunct follows the kernel, *e.g.: came home*.

3. The definition and characteristic features of the sentence.

The sentence, as has been mentioned, is the central object of study in syntax. It can be defined as *the immediate integral unit*

of speech built up by words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose.

The correlation of the word and the sentence shows some important differences and similarities between these two main level-forming lingual units. Both of them are nominative units, but the word just names objects and phenomena of reality; it is a purely nominative component of the word-stock, while the sentence is at the same time a nominative and predicative lingual unit: it names dynamic situations, or situational events, and at the same time reflects the connection between the nominal denotation of the event, on the one hand, and objective reality, on the other hand, showing the time of the event, its being real or unreal, desirable or undesirable, etc. A sentence can consist of only one word, as any lingual unit of the upper level can consist of only one unit of the lower level, *e.g.: Why? Thanks*. But a word making up a sentence is thereby turned into an utterance-unit expressing various connections between the situation described and actual reality. So, the definition of the sentence as a predicative lingual unit gives prominence to the basic differential feature of the sentence as a separate lingual unit: it performs the nominative signemic function, like the word or the phrase, and at the same time it performs the reality-evaluating or predicative function.

Being a unit of speech, the sentence is distinguished by a relevant <u>intonation</u>: each sentence possesses certain intonation contours, including pauses, pitch movements and stresses, which separate one sentence from another in the flow of speech and, together with various segmental means of expression, participate in rendering essential communicative-predicative meanings (for example, interrogation).

The definition of the category of predication is similar to the definition of the <u>category of modality</u>, which also shows a

connection between the named objects and actual reality. However, modality is a broader category, revealed not only in grammar, but in the lexical elements of language; for example, various modal meanings are expressed by modal verbs (*can, may, must, etc.*), by word-particles of specifying modal semantics (*just, even, would-be, etc.*), by semi-functional modal words and phrases of subjective evaluation (*perhaps, unfortunately, by all means, etc.*) and by other lexical units. Predication can be defined as *syntactic modality*, expressed by the sentence.

The center of predication in the sentence is the finite form of the verb, the predicate: it is through the finite verb's categorial forms of tense, mood, and voice that the main predicative meanings, actual evaluations of the event, are expressed. L. Tesnière, who introduced the term "valency" in linguistics, described the verbal predicate as the core around which the whole sentence structure is organized according to the valencies of the predicate verb; he subdivided all verbal complements and supplements into so-called "*actants*", elements that identify the participants in the process, and "*circonstants*", or elements that identify the circumstances of the process [13, p. 318]. Besides the predicate, other elements of the sentence also help express predication: for example, word order, various functional words and, in oral speech, intonation. In addition to verbal time and mood evaluation, the predicative meanings of the sentence include the purpose of communication (declaration – interrogation – inducement), affirmation and negation and other meanings.

As the description above shows, predication is the basic differential feature of the sentence, but not the only one. There is a profound difference between the nominative function of the word and the nominative function of the sentence. The nominative content of a syntagmatically complete average sentence, called *a proposition*, reflects a processual situation, an event that includes

a certain process (actional or statal) as its dynamic center, the agent of the process, the objects of the process, and various conditions and circumstances of the realization of the process. The situation, together with its various elements, is reflected through the nominative parts (members) of the sentence, distinguished in the traditional grammatical or syntactic division of the sentence, which can also be defined as its nominative division. No separate word, no matter how many stems it consists of, can express the situation-nominative semantics of a proposition.

4. Actual division of the sentence.

As has been mentioned, besides the nominative aspect of the semantics of the sentence, which reflects the situation named with its various components, the sentence expresses predicative semantics, which reflects various relations between the nominative content of the sentence and reality. One of the first attempts to analyze communicative semantics of the sentence was undertaken by the scholars of the Prague Lingistic Circle at the beginning of the 20th century. The Czech linguist Vilém Mathesius was the first to describe the informative value of different parts of the sentence in the actual process of communication, making the *informative perspective* of an utterance and showing which component of the denoted situation is informationally more important from the point of view of the speaker [22, p. 224]. By analogy with the grammatical, or nominative division of the sentence the idea of the so-called "actual division" of the sentence was put forward. This linguistic theory is known as the *functional analysis, the communicative analysis, the actual division analysis, or the informative perspective analysis*.

The main components of the actual division of a sentence are **the theme** and **the rheme**. The theme (originally called "*the*

basis" by V. Mathesius) is the starting point of communication, a thing or a phenomenon about which something is reported in the sentence; it usually contains some old, "already known" information. The rheme (originally called "*the nucleus*" by V. Mathesius) is the basic informative part of the sentence, its contextually relevant communicative center, the "peak" of communication, or the information reported about the theme; it usually contains some new information. There may be transitional parts of actual division neither purely thematic, nor rhematic; they can be treated as a secondary rheme, the "subrhematic" part of a sentence; this part is called "**a transition**" For example: *Again Charlie is late. – Again* (transition) *Charlie* (theme) *is late* (rheme). The rheme is the obligatory informative component of a sentence, there may be sentences which include only the rheme; the theme and the transition are optional.

The theory of actual division of the sentence is connected with the logical analysis of the proposition. The logical subject and the logical predicate, like the theme and the rheme, may or may not coincide, respectively, with the subject and the predicate of the sentence. When the actual division of the sentence reflects the natural flow of thinking directed from the starting point of communication to its semantic core, from the logical subject to the logical predicate, the theme precedes the rheme and this type of actual division is called "*direct*", "*unspecialized*", or "*unmarked*". In English, with its fixed word order, direct actual division means that the theme coincides with the subject in the syntactic structure of the sentence, while the rheme coincides with the predicate, as in *Charlie* (theme) *is late* (rheme). In some sentences, the rheme may be expressed by the subject and it may precede the theme, which is expressed by the predicate, *e.g.: Who is late today? – Charlie* (rheme) *is late* (theme). This type of actual division is called "*inverted*", "*reverse*", "*specialized*", or "*marked*". The last

example shows that actual division of the sentence finds its full expression only in a concrete context of speech (it is sometimes referred to as the "contextual" division of the sentence).

As has been mentioned, actual division of the sentence finds its full expression only in a concrete context of speech, but this does not mean that the context should be treated as the factor which makes the speaker arrange the informative perspective of the sentence in a particular way. On the contrary, the actual division is an active means of expressing functional meanings and it is not so much context-governed as it is context-governing: it builds up concrete contexts out of constructional sentence models chosen to reflect different situations and events.

Questions for Reflection:
1. What is the phrase? What are its differential features?
2. What principle is the traditional classification of phrases based on?
3. Comment on different approaches to classifying phrases.
4. What does agreement as a syntactic relation consist in?
5. What differentiates government from agreement?
6. What problems underlie the definition of the sentence?
7. What is the difference between the phrase and the sentence, the sentence and a combination of sentences?
8. Describe the category of predicativity. State the types of predicativity. Give your own examples of each type.
9. Characterise the category of modality. Disclose the difference between objectives and subjective modality and the means of their expression.
10. What properties does the sentence possess?
11. What are the main principles of actual division of the sentence?
12. What language means mark the theme of the sentence?

PART II. PRACTICAL CLASSES

SEMINAR 1.
Fundamentals of Theoretical Grammar.

Issues to be discussed:
1. What is the subject matter of grammar?
2. How does morphology correlate with syntax?
3. What kind of relations exist between grammar and lexicology? What is the problem area?
4. What is the definition of language and linguistic levels?
5. Describe the relations between the levels. Give example of interaction between the levels.
6. Define the grammatical meaning. Is there any difference between grammatical and lexical meanings? Explain how these two types of meanings interact.
7. Give the examples of difference between paradigmatic and syntagmatic meanings.
8. What is a grammatical form? Name and characterize the types of form-building in English
9. What is the grammatical category? What are its types?
10. Give the definition of the opposition. Why is opposition the basis of the grammatical category?
11. What is the essence of two processes − transposition and neutralization? Give your examples of both.

Recommended literature
1. Блох М. Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка : учеб. для ин-тов / М. Я. Блох. − 3-е изд, испр. − М. : Высшая школа, 2000. − 381 с.

2. Верба Л. Г. Грамматика современного английского языка: справочник / Л. Г. Верба. – К. : Логос, 2001. – 368 с.

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5. Ильиш Б. А. Строй современного английского языка : учеб. по курсу теор. грам. для студ. пед. инст. (на английском языке) / Б. А. Ильиш. – 2-е изд-ние. – Л. : Изд-во «Просвещение». Лениград. отд-ние, 1971. – 365 с.

6. A comprehensive Grammar of the English Language / R. Quirk, S. Greenbaum, J. Leech, J. Swartvik. – N.Y. : Longman Group Ltd., 1985. – 1179 p.

7. Carstairs-McCarthy A. An Introduction to English Morphology: Words and their Structure / A. Carstairs-McCarthy. – Edinburgh : Edinburgh University Press Ltd, 2002. – 153 p.

8. Rayevska N. M. Modern English Grammar: For Senior Courses of the Foreign Language Faculties in Universities and Teachers' Training Colleges / N. M. Rayevska. – Kiev : Vyšča Skola Publishers, 1976. – 304 p.

Practical Assignments

1. Read the definitions of language cited below. Think over the principles they are based upon:

a) *Language is the expression of thought by means of words, that is, by means of signs of a particular sort made with the vocal organs.* (James B. Greenbough)

b) *Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group cooperates.* (M. Y. Blokh)

c) *Language is not an assemblage of unconnected patterns but a system which is integrated in a high degree.* (H. Leason)

d) *Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntary produced symbols.* (E. Sapir)

e) *Language is first and foremost a means of transmitting information, and its study is a branch of the study of the signs and objects that they symbolize. /.../ Language is also a form of social behaviour.* (J. Whatmough)

2. State according to what type of word-form derivation the following word-forms were derived:

boys	is invited	met	mice
will come	better	arrived	oxen
written	nicer	does not like	is eating
lady's	more difficult	me	taken
went	children	the most attractive	worse

3. State what types of oppositions are formed by the following groups of words:

feed - feet	dog - dogs	fast - faster -fastest	man - men
least - list -lest	cat - cat's	Pete - pit - pet - pat	to take - to be taken
bob - mob	am - are - is	invites - is inviting	go - will go
leak - league	come - came	child - children	makes - has made
lug - luck	liked - had liked	look - looked	men - men's

4. Say which of the strings are synchronic and which are diachronic:

1) *gospel, the holy, as, say*;

2) *gospel, godspel, holy, halis;*

3) *the, baet, says, 8636;*

4) *swaeswa baet halise godspel 8636.*

5. Single out cases of phatic communion and explain the functions of the phatic elements:

1. *"Nice day again, isn't it? Hm-hm. By the way, Jones, ... wouldn't you do me a favour? The fact is, I'm sort of hard-up. So... could you? I mean, I need a few shillings... Could you lend me - say - ten bob?"*

2. *"Good morning, Missis Partridge! How's your leg, better?" "If you want to ask me money again, I am not inclined to give you any more!" "No-no, I just wanted to ask how's your leg, that's all." "Much better, thank you.*

SEMINAR 2.
The Morphological Level of the Language.

Issues to be discussed:

1. The study of morph, morpheme and allo-morpheme.

2. The principles of morphemes' classification. Derivation and inflection morphemes.

3. What is a homonymous morpheme? What is a zero morpheme? Give the definition of the morpheme adopted by descriptivists.

4. Explain the difference between "suffix" and "inflection".

5. Define distribution. What types of distribution exist?

6. What is the purpose of the distributional analysis? What terms appeared due to the distributional analysis?

7. What does the "allo-emic" theory consist in?

8. What does the morphemic analysis consist in?

Recommended literature

1. Бархударов Л. С. Очерки по морфологии современного английского языка / Л. С. Бархударов. – М., Высшая школа, 1975. – 156 с.

2. Блох М. Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка : учеб. для ин-тов / М. Я. Блох. – 3-е изд, испр. – М. : Высшая школа, 2000. – 381 с.

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5. Смирницкий А. И. Морфология английского языка / А. И. Смирницкий. – М. : Изд-во лит-ры на иностр. языках, 1959. – 440 с.

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7. Morokhovskaya E. J. Fundamentals of Theoretical English Grammar / E. J. Morokhovskaya. – Kiev : Vyšča Škola Publishers, 1984. – 387 p.

8. Rayevska N. M. Modern English Grammar: For Senior Courses of the Foreign Language Faculties in Universities and Teachers' Training Colleges / N. M. Rayevska. – Kiev : Vyšča Škola Publishers, 1976. – 304 p.

Practical Assignments

1. Define the type of morphemic distribution according to which the given words are grouped:

a) burned, burnt;

b) working, worker;

c) impossible, invisible, illegal, irregular;

d) ruthful, ruthless;

e) learning, learnt;
f) worked, played;
g) agreeable, invincible;
h) cells, caps;
i) formulas, formulae;
j) inexperienced, unexperienced.

2. Define the type of the morphemic distribution according to which the given words are grouped.

Model: *insensible – incapable*

The morphs "-ible" and "-able" are in complementary distribution, as they have the same meaning but are different in their form which is explained by their different environments.

a) impeccable, indelicate, illiterate, irrelevant;
b) undisputable, indisputable;
c) published, rimmed;
d) seams, seamless, seamy.

3. Give examples to illustrate different types of morphemes.

4. Can *–i* in *alumni* be considered an allomorph of the plural-building morpheme?

5. Do the morphemic analysis of the words on the lines of the traditional and distributional classifications.

Model: *Do the morphemic analysis of the word "inseparable".*

On the lines of the traditional classification the word "inseparable" is treated as a three-morpheme word consisting of the root "-separ-", the prefix "in-" and the lexical suffix "-able".

On the lines of the distributional analysis the root "-separ-" is a bound, overt, continuous, additive morpheme; the prefix "in-" is bound, overt, continuous, additive; the suffix "-able" is bound, overt, continuous, additive.

a) unmistakably, children's (books), disfigured, underspecified, surroundings, presume, kingdom, brotherhood,

plentiful, imperishable, unprecedented, oxen, embodiment, outlandish;

b) hammer, students' (papers), sing – sang – singing – singer, really, proficient – deficient – efficient, gooseberry, unreproved, incomparable;

c) quiet, perceptions, vvheaterina, bell, unbelievably, glassy, uncommunicative, inexplicable, infamy, strenuousness;

d) inconceivable, prefigurations, southernism, semidarkness, adventuress, insurmountable, susceptibility, ineptitude, unfathomable, insufficiency, to prejudge, cranberry.

SEMINAR 3.
The Verb and Verbal Categories.

Issues to be discussed:

1. A general outline of the verb as a part of speech.

2. Classification of verbs (notional verbs/semi-notional verbs).

3. A general outline of verbals: the categorial semantics, categories, syntactic functions.

4. The infinitive, the gerund, the present and past participle. Their categories and properties.

5. The category of person and number: traditional and modern interpretations.

6. The category of tense: the basic notions connected with the category of tense. Modern conceptions of English tenses.

7. The category of aspect. The problems of the aspective characterization of the verb;

8. The category of voice.

9. Language means of expressing modality. The category of mood.

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Practical Assignments

1. Analyze the morphological structure of the following verbs:

To man, to give in, to belittle, to lip-read, to ill-treat, to darken, to put down, to towel, to bleed, to undermine, to transport.

2. Dwell upon the categorial features of verbs in the following sentences:

1. "Did you ever see such a collection of rumty-too people?" (J. Galsworthy)

2. It so happened that the night before I had been present at a rather cheery little supper, and I was feeling pretty rocky. (P. Wodehouse)

3. 'I've been using the same blade for six weeks,' he added untruthfully. (G. Orwell)

4. He recollected with satisfaction that he had bought that house over James's head. (J. Galsworthy)

5. Months before, with an architect at their elbows, the three had worked over the detailed plans for each section which would have its home in the new wing. (A. Hailey)

3. Rephrase the sentences so as to use a gerund as an object:

1. I insist on it that you should give up this job immediately.

2. They were surprised when they didn't find any one at home.

3. He went on speaking and was not listening to any objections.

4. When the boy was found he didn't show any signs of being alive.

5. Do you admit that you have made a mistake by divorcing her?

6. They suspect that he has been bribed.

4. Choose infinitive or gerund and give your reasons:

1. As some water had got in, the engine of the boat couldn't but... working (to stop).

2. I'm afraid our camera wants ... (to repair).

3. This is not the way ... children (to treat).

4. I regretted ... the doctor's recommendations (not to follow).

5. I regret ... that I canэt come to your wedding (to say).

6. Did they teach you ... at school (to dance)?

7. Who has taught you ... so well (to dance)?

8. She demanded ... the whole truth (to tell).

9. On her way home she stopped ... with her neighbour (to talk).

10. Remember ... the gas-stove before leaving the fiat (to turn off).

5. Define the modal meanings actualized by the infinitive and infinitival complexes (possibility, necessity, desire, expression of an actual fact):

1. There is a Mr. Anthony Rizzoli here to see you (Sheldon).

2. I have a regiment of guards to do my bidding (Haggard).

3. I'll send a man to come with you (Lawrence).

4. I never saw anybody to touch him in looks (Haggard).

5. There is nothing in that picture to indicate that she was soon to be one of the most famous persons in France (Christie).

6. It was a sound to remember (Lawrence).

SEMINAR 4.
Syntax. Its Subject and Methods.

Issues to be discussed:

1. The basic units of syntax: the phrase and the sentence.

2. The phrase in the hierarchy of language units.

3. Differential features of the phrase and of the sentence.

4. The notion of collocation and its semantic status.

5. The traditional part of speech classification of phrases. Nominative classification of phrases.

6. Types of syntactic connections: coordination, subordination, accumulation.

7. Agreement and government as two main types of syntactic relations.

8. Classification of word combinations in structuralism.

9. Adjoinment and enclosure as special means of expressing syntactic relations.

Recommended literature

1. Блох М. Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка : учеб. для ин-тов / М. Я. Блох. – 3-е изд, испр. – М. : Высшая школа, 2000. – 381 с.

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Practical Assignments

1. Define the properties of the following phrases:

For us to come; (made) him feel tired; denied the accusations; seriously damaged; pride and prejudice; a wedding dress; naïve country (girls); to kiss tenderly; over the net; beauty, grace, elegance; he runs; proud of the success; early riser; perfectly sure; a feeling of disgust; rich in copper ore; love of God; (caught) the boy snooping around; my old (shoes); the book falling out of her hands; junk food; to stably reproduce; we trust; new blue (jacket); on the table.

2. State the type of syntactic relations (agreement, government, adjoinment, enclosure):

A negative answer, these books, he comes, to fully understand, to know them, on me, they agreed, lovely face, your lovely smile, with him, to speak quietly, that shop, gave to him.

3. Define the properties of word-groupings on the lines of different classifications.

Model: *"a self-reliant student"*

It is a notional, dominational, consecutive, completive monolateral, qualifying attributive phrase. It comprises an article, an adjective, and a noun.

1. the train moved;
2. can come, supposedly;
3. cakes and ale;
4. a stifling weather;
5. projected onto the token;
6. the world beyond;
7. really amazing;
8. laughed a little;
9. familiar noise;
10. to feel foolish.

4. Account for the peculiarity of the following sentences.

1. You might write to Miss What's-her-name and say we're corning (Christie).

2. It's the "Save Mrs. Lancaster" that I'm going to be busy with (Christie).

3. He felt much less vulnerable in jeans and a MEET ME IN FAIR VIEW T-shirt... (King).

4. The idea that such off-the-wall-things as gypsy curses exist at all... is anathema to everything Michael Houston has ever believed in (King).

5. This last was in a lower I'm-talking-to-myself voice, and was followed by a thump as Ginelli threw his shoulder against the door (King).

6. Thinner, just that one word, but it was malediction enough, Halleck saw, because everyone in this affluent upper-class-commute-to-the-city-and-have-a-few-drinks-in-the-club-car-on-the-way-home suburb, everyone in this pretty little new England town set squarely in the heart of John Cheever country, everyone in Fairview was starving to death (King).

SEMINAR 5.
Constituent Structure of the Sentence.

Issues to be discussed:

1. The notion of the sentence. The sentence as a language unit. Predication and modality.

2. What are the differential features of the sentence?

3. What makes the sentence the main object of syntax?

4. What functions does the sentence perform?

5. In what way does the notion of nominative aspect of the sentence specify the notion of predication?

6. The basic principles of sentence division.

7. Actual division of the sentence. The notion of theme and rheme.

8. The notion of transition. The notions of topic and comment. Topicalization. The notion of presupposition.

9. Language means of expressing the theme and the rheme.

10. Actual division of sentences with non-finite forms of the verb. Constructions with the double/triple rheme.

11. Classification of sentences according to the purpose of communication: traditional classification, Ch. Fries' classification.

12. Modern classification of communicative sentence types. The problem of exclamatory sentences.

Recommended literature

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Practical Assignments

1. Define whether the structures in italics are one-member or elliptical sentences. *State the type of one-member sentences.*

1. *"Glad to hear it."* (Th. Dreiser)

2. I don't write. *Not such a fool.* (J. Galsworthy)

3. *To be alive! To have youth and the world before one.* (Th. Dreiser)

4. *Living room in the house of Philip Phillimore.* (L. Mitchell)

5. *Looks to me for all the world like an alf-tame leopard.* (J. Galsworthy)

6. *A scandal! A possible scandal!* (J. Galsworthy)

7. *To receive so flattering an invitation! To have her company so warmly solicited!* (J. Austen)

8. Soames stole a glance. *No movement in his wife's face.* (J. Galsworthy)

9. *"Had an autopsy. Took longer than I figured."* (A. Hailey)

10. She was going to bed at last. Ah! *Joy and pleasant dreams!* (J. Galsworthy)

2. State structural and communicative types of the following sentences:

1. *Well, there they were! (J. Galsworthy)*

2. *'What do you mean by that?' (W. S. Maugham)*

3. *"Careful! You'll break it!" (W. Golding)*

4. *What could he have been thinking of? (J. K. Rowling)*

5. *She had gone out a quarter of an hour before. Out at such a time of night, into this terrible fog! (J. Galsworthy)*

6. *Who had done this barbarous deed? (A. Conan Doyle)*

7. *It hadn't changed at all. (R. Dahl)*

8. *"Piggy! Piggy!" (W. Golding)*

9. *He was not used to being talked to like that. (R. Chandler)*

10. *Forgotten! (J. Galsworthy)*

3. Analyze the semantic structure of the following sentences defining the semantic roles of the underlined elements:

1. The _attacker_ aimed his _gun_ again. (D. Brown)

2. _She_ handed _him_ the baggage _checks_. (E. S. Gardner)

3. Almost immediately, a heavy _fist_ pounded on Langdon's _door_. (D. Brown)

4. The _book_ lay on her _lap_. (M. Ondaatje)

5. _Horace_ shook his _head_. (F. S. Fitzgerald)

6. _He_ was indefatigable. (W. S. Maugham)

7. _He_ opened the _door_. (A. Huxley)

8. _He_ soaks his _face_ with _water_ and shaves his _beard_. (J. Cheever)

9. _He_ would flog _her_ to death with a rubber _truncheon_. (G. Orwell)

10. _She_ shrugged her _shoulders_. (W. S. Maugham)

4. Analyze the actual division of the sentences and the language means used to mark it:

1. All her life they had been watching her. (R. Dahl)

2. The girl with dark hair was sitting immediately behind. (G. Orwell)

3. It was Mrs. Eccles I particularly wanted to see. (A. Christie)

4. There is a form to fill in. The form is placed before them, and a pen. (J. Coetzee)

5. No, he had never written about Paris. Not the Paris he cared about. (E. Hemingway)

6. Across the fire from Horace was another easychair. (F. S. Fitzgerald)

7. The situation must be faced. (A. C. Doyle)

8. How simple it all was! (J. Cheever)

9. Sunday was a holiday for Dad, not for Mum. (S. Leacock)

10. The Brotherhood, its name was supposed to be. (G. Orwell)

5. Define the communicative sentence type, dwell on the actual division of the following sentences. Define the speech-act features of these sentences.

1. *Oh, Mr. Holmes, you must save him – you must save him! I tell you that you must save him! (Doyle)*

2. *"Mrs. Hudson," I said, going out to her, "I want you to pack my bags, please." (Hardwick)*

3. *I suppose you were in a convent? (Hemingway)*

4. *"Listen," George said to Nick. "You better go see Ole Anderson." (Hemingway)*

5. *Thanks for coming to tell me about it (Hemingway).*

6. *Don't you want me to go and see the police? (Hemingway)*

7. *"Why don't you try to go to sleep?" (Hemingway)*

8. *"Don't be melodramatic, Harry, please," she said (Hemingway).*

9. *"How do you feel?" she said. "All right." (Hemingway)*

10. *"Who likes to be abused?" (Sheldon)*

PART III. INDIVIDUAL TASKS

Topics for individual reports

Choose one of the topics suggested and write a four-or-five page report. Your report should have well-defined structure: **an introduction**, **the main body** and **a conclusion** summarizing the ideas described. A list of references is also a MUST (see my list below for typography (оформление списка литературы). The Internet is allowed but do not overuse it.

1. The contemporary methods of linguistic analysis.
2. Types of morphemes.
3. The problems of field structure.
4. The categories of case and number as viewed by M. Y. Blokh and E. J. Morokhovskaya.
5. The verb and its grammatical categories.
6. The categories of tense and aspect as viewed by M. Y. Blokh and E. J. Morokhovskaya.
7. The categories of mood, voice and correlation.
8. Functional parts of speech and functional words.
9. Adjective (general characteristics). Ways of expression.
10. Syntax and its subject matter. Units of syntax.
11. Word-combinations. The phrase.
12. Sentence and its structural types.
13. Main parts of a simple sentence.
14. Secondary parts of the sentence.
15. Composite sentence.
16. Types of subordinate clauses.
17. Sentence semantics.
18. Pragmatic aspect of the sentence.
19. Cognitive aspects of language.
20. Semi-complex and semi-compound sentences.

APPENDIX

Questions to get ready for the final test

1. Language as a semiotic system: its functions and structure.

2. Lingual elements (units) as signs, their levels, structural and functional features.

3. Language and Speech.

4. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations between language units.

5. Interrelation of Theoretical Grammar with other branches.

6. Morphology and its main notions: a grammatical meaning, a grammatical form, a paradigm, a grammatical category.

7. Main units of morphology: a word and a word-form, a morpheme and its types.

8. Parts of speech in English. The three-criterion principle of their discrimination.

9. Fries's classification of word classes.

10. The noun: lexical-grammatical groups of noun. The category of number.

11. The noun: the category of case and the category of gender.

12. The adjective, main subclasses. The problem of the stative.

13. The adverb, main subclasses. The problem of modal words.

14. The main grammatical classes of verbs. Their semantic, syntactic and morphological peculiarities.

15. The category of tense. The problem of the future tense.

16. The category of aspect and the category of time correlation.

17. The category of mood. Different approaches to the number of moods.

18. The category of voice. The status of medial, reflexive and reciprocal structures.

19. The phrase: its types, relations between its elements, and comparison with the sentence.

20. The sentence, its definition and main features. The sentence and non-sentence utterances.

21. Main communicative types of sentences.

22. The simple sentence. Its main types and the problem of elliptical sentences.

23. The immediate constituents of a sentence. A kernel sentence.

24. The compound sentence. Ranks of its constituents. The problem of its existence as a separate structural type.

25. The complex sentence and its types.

26. Predication and secondary predication. Secondary predication: semi-complex structures, their types and functioning.

27. Main parts of the sentence. The problem of their hierarchy.

28. Main characteristics of the subject.

29. Main types of the predicate.

30. Secondary parts of the sentence. The object. The adverbial modifier. The attribute.

31. The semantic structure of the sentence. Actants and their semantic roles (deep cases).

32. Functional sentence perspective in text\discourse analysis.

Sample Module Test Assignments

Variant A

1. The theoretical grammar is a science, that …
a) explains fundamentals of structure of language in accordance with the latest developments in linguistics;
b) has its own object of investigation, aims and approaches of investigation;
c) introduces the most important problems of the grammatical structure of language;
d) studies the importance of grammatical structure.

2. Language in the narrow sense of the word is …
a) the manifestation of the system of language in the process of intercourse;
b) a system of means of expression;
c) a nominative unit of language;
d) a context for itself;
e) the hierarchy of language levels

3. What is the morpheme?
a) It is the smallest meaningful segmental component of the word.
b) It is a nominative unit of language.
c) It is the form of the word which expresses the grammatical meaning.
d) It is a class of lexemes characterized by some specific features.
e) It is a class of words which have their variants of own.

4. What are the main characteristics of the notional parts of speech?
a) They unite words of complete nominating meaning and are unchangeable.
b) They unite words of incomplete nominating meaning and are unchangeable.

c) They unite words of complete nominating meaning, they are changeable, play independent functions in the sentence.

d) They are changeable, unite words of incomplete nominating meaning, play independent function in the sentence.

e) They are immediate parts of phrases.

5. What is the word?

a) It is the smallest segmental component of the word.

b) It is a nominative unit of language.

c) It is the form of the word which expresses the grammatical meaning.

d) It is a class of lexemes characterized by some specific features.

e) It is a type of word form derivation.

6. According to their meaning the verbs can be:

a) dynamic and stative;

b) transitive and intransitive;

c) notional and structural;

d) terminative and durative;

e) auxilary and seminotional.

7. Which of the following is not a feature of the sentence?

a) The sentence is a ready-nude unit.

b) The sentence is a unit of speech, which is intonationally delimited.

c) The sentence is characterized by predication.

d) The sentence is a unit of speech.

e) The sentence is a nominal element consisting of some components.

8. What is the elliptical sentence?

a) A sentence which contains only one predicative line.

b) A sentence full of homogeneous members.

c) A sentence with one or more of its parts left out, which can be easily restored.

d) An unexpanded sentence.

e) An expanded sentence.

9. How many grammatical categories do the finite forms of the verb have?

a) four (tense mod. number, person);

b) three (case, person, gender);

c) two (voice, tense);

d) seven (tense, voice, mood, person, number, aspect, time-correlation);

e) one (degrees of comparison).

10. What is O. Jespersen's viewpoint on the problem of the members of the sentence?

a) The direct object must be treated as a part of a predicate.

b) The predicate is not an independent part of the sentence as it agrees with the third person singular of the subject in present time sphere.

c) He introduced semi-notional members of the sentence-connectives, specifies and parenthesis.

d) The subject and the object are of the same rank in the structure of the sentence, for they participate in conveying "the principal thought".

e) The subject and the predicate are of the same rank.

Variant B

1. What is the purpose of the theoretical grammar of the English language?

a) To present a systematic study of the grammatical structure of Modern English and to introduce different views of language.

b) To prescribe a set of normative rules based on the so-called standard English.

c) To investigate different methods of teaching English.

d) To help the students to learn as many words and phrases as possible.

2. O. Jespersen is a representative of …
a) the pre-normative grammar;
b) the normative grammar;
c) the prescriptive grammar;
d) the classical scientific grammar;
e) the textual linguistics.

3. The main criteria of classification of parts of speech are:
a) meaning, form and semantic.
b) meaning, form and function.
c) grammatical meaning, grammatical form and grammatical category.
d) exchangeability, combinability and nominating meaning.
e) independence of the other grammatical categories.

4. Traditional classification of the morpheme is a division of the word into…
a) a root morpheme and a suffix.
b) a root morpheme and an overt.
c) a root morpheme and derivational morphemes.
d) inner inflexion and outer inflexion.
e) a root morpheme and a bound one.

5. According to their meaning and function in a sentence the verbs are classified into …
a) countable and uncountable;
b) plural and singular;
c) notional and structural;
d) dynamic and stative;
e) dynamic and durative.

6. What is "predication"?
a) It is a relation between the subject and the verb.
b) It is the expression of the relation of the utterance to reality.
c) It is a predicative link word.
d) It is a modal verb.
e) It is an analytical form.

7. From the point of view of their structure, sentences can be:
a) affirmative, declarative, negative;
b) simple and composite;
c) subordinate and principle;
d) simple, composite and semi-composite;
e) predicative and composite.

8. Give a full classification of the following phrase: *I have never heard so much despair fine voice*.
a) subordinate, progressive, adjective phrase;
b) cumulate, one-class, noun phrase;
c) subordinate, regressive, adverb phrase ;
d) subordinate, regressive, noun phrase;
e) coordinate, absolute, abstract.

9. Which of the following pronouns do not possess the category of case?
a) possessive;
b) interrogative;
c) reciprocal;
d) indefinite;
e) personal.

10. Which of the following is a definition of the subject?
a) It is a unit that indicates who or what is engaged in carrying out the action specified by the verb.
b) It is a member of predication containing the mood and the tease components of predicativity.
c) It answers the question "who", "whom", "what" and denotes an object.
d) It is a part of a sentence which qualifies a noun, a pronoun or any other part of speech.
e) It is connected with the members of the sentence.

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Демідов Д. В. Теоретична граматика англійської мови. – Методичний посібник для студентів заочних відділень філологічного напряму підготовки вищих навчальних закладів.

Методичне видання ознайомлює студентів з основними принципами та закономірностями граматичної будови сучасної англійської мови в аспекті її структури та функціонування, класичним та сучасним підходами до мовних одиниць та явищ; дозволить розвинути у студентів науково-лінгвістичне мислення, уміння орієнтуватися у науковій лінгвістичній інформації, розуміти природу граматичних явищ та процесів. Методичні рекомендації складаються з трьох частин: лекційного матеріалу, планів семінарських занять та завдання для самостійної роботи.

Демидов Д. В. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – Методическое пособие для студентов заочных отделений филологического профиля подготовки высших учебных заведений.

Методическое издание знакомит студентов с основными принципами и закономерностями грамматического строя современного английского языка в аспекте его структуры и функционирования, классическим и современным подходам к изучению языковых единиц и явлений; позволит развить у студентов научно-лингвистическое мышление, умение ориентироваться в научной лингвистической информации, понимать природу грамматических явлений и процессов. Методические рекомендации состоят из трех частей: лекционного материала, планов семинарских занятий и задания для самостоятельной работы.

Demidov D. V. **Theoretical English Grammar.** – The manual for part-time students of philology departments of higher educational institutions.

The manual introduces students to the basic principles and regularities of the grammatical structure of Modern English language in the aspect of its inherent structure and functioning; gives a detailed description of classical and modern approaches to the study of linguistic units and phenomena; it will allow students to develop scientific and linguistic thinking, the ability to navigate in the scientific linguistic information, to understand the nature of grammatical phenomena and processes. The manual includes three parts: lecture material, seminar questions and the task for individual work.

Навчально-методичне видання

ДЕМІДОВ Денис Валерійович

THEORETICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Методичний посібник для студентів заочних відділень філологічного напряму підготовки вищих навчальних закладів

Англійською мовою

Методичні рекомендації з теоретичної граматики англійської мови складаються з трьох частин: лекційного матеріалу, планів семінарських занять та завдання для самостійної роботи. Основне завдання курсу – розвиток лінгвістичного мислення студентів, наукового розуміння граматичних і лексико-граматичних категорій сучасної англійської мови. В центрі уваги проблемні питання теорії граматики на сучасному етапі розвитку мовознавства, питання системного характеру мови, діалектичної єдності форми і змісту всіх граматичних явищ, функціонально-семантичних зв'язків між одиницями різного рівня. Ці питання висвітлюються в плані систематичних зіставлень з українською мовою.

Адресовано студентам заочних відділень філологічного напряму підготовки вищих навчальних закладів.

За редакцією автора
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